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ABSTRACT

Part 1 of this report presents a summary of 1969 research studies relating to language arts in elementary education. The summary comments on 111 studies (the majority of which deal with reading instruction) drawn from 61 journals, organized under the categories of (1) research summaries and listings; (2) language; (3) oral communication; (4) written communication--composition, spelling, and handwriting; and (5) studies in reading--pre-kindergarten programs, preschool reading and readiness activities, beginning reading instruction, programs and grouping practices, vocabulary and word analysis, reading achievement and some correlates, interests and literature, and special problems and reading. Part 2 of the report, a summary of 1969 investigations relating to the English language arts in secondary education (compiled from 100 journals) is also divided by subject: (1) bibliographies and summaries of research; (2) general English pedagogy; (3) composition; (4) language; (5) literature; (6) reading; and (7) preparation of secondary school English teachers (preservice, graduate, and inservice). Both the elementary and secondary school sections provide a list of references. (MF)

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A SUMMARY OF INVESTIGATIONS RELATING TO THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION: 1969

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Urbana, Illinois
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A Summary of Research Studies Relating to Language Arts in Elementary Education: 1969

This ninth annual review of research in elementary language arts includes comments on 111 studies. Of this number the great majority deal with reading instruction, but there is an increase in the number of reports relating to the other aspects of the language arts.

Attempts were made by the reviewers to include all studies relating to elementary language arts reported in sixty-one journals from January, 1969 to December, 1969. In some cases judgments were made by the reviewers as to whether or not an article was a research study; any other omissions are the responsibility of the reviewers and are probably the result of faulty library searching.

Again, as in previous years, this review is presented under the sponsorship of the Committee on Research of the National Council of Teachers of English.

RESEARCH SUMMARIES AND LISTINGS

Robinson, Weintraub, and Smith[1] summarized and annotated 376 research studies in the field of reading published between July 1, 1967 and June 30, 1968. The studies are grouped under six major headings: (1) Summaries of Specific Aspects of Reading Research; (2) Teacher Preparation and Practice; (3) Sociology of Reading; (4) Physiology and Psychology of Reading; (5) The Teaching of Reading; (6) Reading of Atypical Learners.

Harris, Otto, Barrett, and Mattingly[2] presented their annual "Summary and Review of Investigations Relating to Reading," in the *Journal of Educational Research.* The summary and review includes empirical research in the following areas: (1) The Sociology of Reading; (2) The Psychology of Reading; (3) The Physiology of Reading; (4) The Teaching of Reading.

Edward G. Summers[3] presented an annotated listing of dissertations in college and adult reading instruction. Included were 84 dissertations completed at various universities in this country and Canada.

Walter MacGinitie[4] analyzed the general nature of past research in reading readiness, cited specific examples, and

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[1]Helen M. Robinson, Samuel Weintraub, and Helen K. Smith, "Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading, July 1, 1967 to June 30, 1968," *Reading Research Quarterly,* 4, (Winter, 1969) 129-316.

[2]Theodore L. Harris, Wayne Otto, Thomas C. Barrett, and Jane Mattingly, "Summary and Review of Investigations Relating to Reading," *The Journal of Educational Research,* 62, No. 7 (March, 1969) 291-312.

[3]Edward G. Summers, "Doctoral Dissertations in College and Adult Reading Instruction," *Journal of Reading,* 12, No. 8 (May, 1969) 647-654+, 13, No. 1, (October, 1969) 9-14.

[4]Walter MacGinitie, "Evaluating Readiness for Learning to Read: A Critical Review and Evaluation of Research," *Reading Research Quarterly,* 4 (Spring, 1969) 396-410.

made recommendations for future research in this area. The author makes reference to works in the area of readiness by Barrett, Birch and Belmont, Chall and Feldman, De Hirsch, Jansky, Langford, Dykstra, Gates, Hess and Shipman, Hillerich, Katz and Deutch, MacGinitie, Muehl and Cremenak and Scott. He concludes: (1) Much care is necessary when trying to interpret studies of readiness when teaching methods are not clearly specified; (2) Retrospective inferences can be extremely misleading; (3) Much care is needed in interpreting correlations presented in many of the readiness studies.

For those who are concerned with or deal with the bilingual child, Doris C. Ching[5] has presented a 36-term annotated bibliography dealing with reading and language development for the bilingual child.

Lowell Horton[6] prepared a bibliography to give teachers and administrators specific sources for help in the teaching of handwriting. The references he provided fall under seven categories: (1) Manuscript-cursive; (2) The Present State of Handwriting; (3) The Relationship of Handwriting to Other Areas; (4) The Left-Handed Writer; (5) Evaluation and Quality; (6) Diagnosis and Analysis of Problems; and (7) Recommendations for Teaching. Under each of the classifications or categories a brief paragraph appears which attempts to provide a context for the bibliographic entries. The number of references under each heading ranges from 4 to 13.

A summary of research on critical reading and critical thinking abilities which has appeared in the past thirty years was done by Marian M. Gray.[7] Forty-six research studies were reported under the categories of age, intelligence, attitudes, values and beliefs. All of the studies reported showed some degree of success in teaching critical reading and critical thinking. The author felt that critical readers can be developed and that instruction in this is profitable even in the primary grades.

A discussion of some of the past thinking and recent research on the topics of auditory acuity, auditory discrimination, and auditory-visual integration as they relate to reading is found in an article by James R. Evans.[8] He concludes that impaired auditory acuity, especially for higher pitched sounds, appears to be somewhat associated with retardation in reading. Problems with auditory discrimination have been shown to be at least slightly associated with reading disability on a much wider scale and recently, skill in auditory–visual and visual-auditory sensory integration has been demonstrated by several investigators to be at least moderately correlated with reading achievement.

A listing of masters theses that make a difference was presented by Harold Newman[9]. The topics of the studies range from preschool experiences of culturally deprived children to college and adult reading activities.

In *Elementary English*, Robert Denby,[10] reporting on NCTE/ERIC activities, has presented three short summaries or

[5]Doris C. Ching, "Reading, Language Development and the Bilingual Child: An Annotated Bibliography," *Elementary English*, 46 (May, 1969) 622-628.

[6]Lowell Horton, "The Second R: A Working Bibliography," *Elementary English* 46 (April, 1969) 427-430.

[7]Marian M. Gray, "Research and Elementary School Critical Reading Instruction," *The Reading Teacher*, 22 (February, 1969) 453-549.

[8]James R. Evans, "Auditory and Auditory-Visual Integration Skills as They Relate to Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, 22 (April, 1969) 625-629.

[9]Harold Newman, "Masters Theses in Reading That Make a Difference," *The Journal of the Reading Specialist*, 9, No. 1 (October, 1969) 23-31.

[10]Robert V. Denby, "Linguistics Instruction in Elementary School Classrooms–An NCTE/ERIC Report," *Elementary English*, 46 (January, 1969) 29-35.

listings. The first reviews studies and materials available which are related to the teaching of linguistics in the classroom. These studies indicate a greater interest on the part of teachers, supervisors, and administrators in the inclusion of linguistics in instructional programs. Postman's caution that traditional grammars not be replaced by equally irrelevant manipulation of new grammar systems is reiterated. The article includes brief reviews of several suggestions for classroom linguistics activities, resource units, and resource books and monographs, all of which are available on microfiche.

The second report by Denby[11] calls attention to research studies and speculative discussions on listening which were not mentioned in earlier *Elementary English* articles by other authors. Denby includes eight research studies on the teaching of listening, all available from the ERIC collection.

The third summary by Denby[12] briefly summarizes 27 references on the use of audiovisual aids in teaching the language arts. Again, most of them are available through the ERIC collection.

LANGUAGE

An investigation of the language system used by children of low-income Negro families was reported by Joan C. Baratz[13]. She attempted to compare the language behavior of standard and non-standard speakers when they were asked to repeat standard or non-standard sentences. The population consisted of third and fifth graders from two schools in Washington, D.C. The task involved a repetition test including 30 sentences, 15 in standard English and 15 in non-standard English. Children were asked to repeat each sentence after hearing it twice. She found that Negro children performed significantly better than white children on the non-standard stimuli. White scored significantly better on standard stimuli. The interaction of race and grammatical feature was significant for both groups. Error responses followed a definite consistent pattern for blacks and whites. She concludes that the major difficulty for Negro children is one of "code-switching" rather than language deficiency. Using standard English criterion for tests of how well standard English has been developed is appropriate, but not for testing how well the child has developed language.

Another study examining the language of culturally disadvantaged children in an attempt to determine the effects of a special program of language development was reported by McConnell and others[14]. The subjects were 128 children, mostly Negro, ranging in age from 2-8 and from 5-11. The daily procedures for the children included an opening exercise, a language program, a sensory-perceptual training program, and a music-story hour. The language program emphasized the receptive skills the first year, but changed to more emphasis on the expressive aspects of language the second year. Units comprising the language series included The Child and His Family, The Home, Clothing, Food, Toys, Science, Farm Animals, Transportation, Community Helpers and Zoo Animals. Procedures developed by Bereiter and Engelmann and Frostig were followed, in part. The *Peabody Lan-*

[11]Robert V. Denby, NCTE/ERIC "Report on Research in Listening and Listening Skills," *Elementary English*, 46 (April, 1969) 511-517.
[12]Robert V. Denby, "An NCTE/ERIC Report on Language Arts Instruction Via Audiovisual Aids," *Elementary English*, 46 (May, 1969) 612-621.
[13]Joan C. Baratz, "A Bi-Dialectal Task for Determining Language Proficiency in Economically Disadvantaged Negro Children," *Child Development*, 40 (September, 1969) 889-901.
[14]Freeman McConnell, Kathryn B. Horton, and Bertha R. Smith, "Language Development and Cultural Disadvantagement," *Exceptional Children*, 35 (April, 1969) 597-606.

guage Development Kit was used regularly and the perceptual training program emphasized the development of visual, auditory and tactile senses. The results showed that gains in intellectual functioning were made by the children in the experimental groups, while declines were noted for the control groups. This difference was less pronounced when measured by the Peabody than when measured with the *Stanford-Binet*. The authors go on to suggest that the Peabody might be a questionable instrument to be used with disadvantaged children. It is concluded that language deficit constitutes the greatest hazard to later school learning. The lags produced in early years resulted in a cumulative deficit which if not attacked early, might become irreversible. Both the receptive and expressive aspects of language were stimulated, increased and improved through this program.

Michelson and Galloway[15] examined the language deficiencies of Indian children to determine the possibility of overcoming language deficits. They dealt with three groups of children ages 3 to 4, 5 to 6, and 7 to 13. The children exhibited a number of the characteristics commonly associated with the educationally disadvantaged child: (1) lack of self-confidence; (2) paucity of educational stimuli in the home; (3) inadequate physical care and under-nourishment; and (4) impoverishment of language skills. The quality of verbalization was determined through the use of a pre- and post-test of language patterns (*The Imitation-Comprehension-Production Test* by Brown and others). Much care was given to establishing behavioral objectives for the four-week long programs and to planning language lessons completely. Children were expected to produce language and were involved in sorting, classifying, describing, and explaining activities. The data presented seem to suggest that language deficiencies tend to remain in the verbal repertoire of the child. More importantly the data support the hypothesis that this language deficiency can be corrected. Specific teaching for specific purposes were stressed; time and undifferentiated school activities were not sufficient to overcome the language deficiencies found in the subjects of this study.

An investigation of the predictive role of language competency on success in beginning reading of sixty subjects in a South Chicago suburban school was conducted by Bougere[16]. The subjects were attending first grade for the first time and represented the following socio-econimic levels: predominantly upper-middle, predominantly middle, or "blue collar", and predominantly lower class. Comparisons were made between two types of predictors of reading achievement—the *Metropolitan Readiness Test* and seven experimental measures of syntactic and vocabulary factors in oral language. Other tests used for comparison included the Kuhlman-Anderson, the *Gray Oral Reading Test*, and various elements or subtests of the *Stanford Achievement Test, Primary I battery*. Detailed syntactic analyses were done on the language samples, employing such techniques as T-units, type-token ratio, and word frequency. The results showed that the selected linguistic measures were not shown to be closely related to reading achievement at this level. Correlations and regression analyses showed that the *Metropolitan Readiness Test* accounted for a greater percentage of the variance in first grade reading achieve-

[15]Norma I. Michelson and Charles G. Galloway, "Cumulative Language Deficit Among Indian Children," *Exceptional Children*, 36 (November, 1969) 187-190.

[16]Marguerite Bondy Bougere, "Selected Factors in Oral Language Related to First-Grade Reading Achievement," *Reading Research Quarterly*, 4 (Fall, 1969) 31-58.

ment than did the experimental linguistic measures. Addition of the linguistic predictors to the Metropolitan improved prediction in the areas of word recognition and comprehension achievement. Some differences were found between socio-economic groups in language, but not reading achievement. The question is raised of the representativeness of the various socio-economic classes, as all of the subjects were from a suburban area. The correlations between intelligence scores and scores on the experimental linguistic measures were low and non-significant. The author concluded that it is not safe to assume that a sample of oral language produced in a single interview provided a reliable or representative sample of what the subject might have produced in response to differing stimuli or at differing points in time. The author also included a frank discussion if the impracticality of her linguistic measures for classroom teachers, but also suggests ways first grade teachers might increase their own abilities to assess the linguistic competencies of their children. She also included a discussion of possible implications of this study for further research.

Bryant and Anisfeld[17] evaluated two methods of testing kindergarten children for their knowledge of English pluralization rules: one using feedback as to the correctness or incorrectness of responses and one without any feedback. Population included 72 kindergarten children enrolled in two schools with a mean age of 5 years, 11 months. All of the subjects were native speakers of English and their parents' occupations ranged from unskilled workers to professionals. Three sets of twenty synthetic singular nouns were constructed. One-third of the subjects were tested with each set. A second set or list was constructed from the first by changing plurals to singulars and the singulars to plurals. There were 20 pairs of animal cartoon drawings designed to be carriers of the synthetic names. In the testing procedure, one of the pictures was first shown to the subjects and a synthetic name assigned to it. Apart from the presence or absence of feedback, the two conditions were identical in all respects. The results indicated that the overall mean number of errors in the feedback condition was significantly smaller than in the no-feedback condition. The subjects' performance on the first half of the list was compared with their performance on the second half in each condition for each of the two sequences. The only significant improvement from the first half to the second half was in the feedback condition in the plural-singular sequence. The results, clearly indicate that the feedback produced a substantial learning effect, resulting in fewer mean numbers of errors.

Wolman and others[18] devised an observational method for assessing children's language. Subjects included 29 children in two groups matched as closely as possible by age, ethnic background, sex and previous experience in Head Start. All subjects were between the ages of 4 and 5 and included Negro, Mexican-Americans and Anglo-Americans. Each child was observed weekly by an advanced student in an undergraduate program. The observers recorded every word or sound the child uttered. Communication units were then classified according to rules adopted from Loban and Templin. There seemed to be no

[17]Brenda Bryant and Moshe Anisfeld, "Feedback Vs. No-Feedback in Testing Children's Knowledge of English Pluralization Rules," *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 8 (October, 1969) 250-255.

[18]Marianne Wolman, Elizabeth Prescott and Ferol Ellsworth, "Evaluating Language Development in Two Head Start Groups," *Elementary English*, 46 (April, 1969) 500-504, 536.

control over teacher variable or curriculum. The *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test* (Forms A and B) was given near the beginning and near the end of the year to establish vocabulary growth. Another test (unstandardized) helped to determine the child's ability to name, categorize, and match familiar objects. An evaluation form was completed for each child by his teacher and by the observer who had recorded the child's language on a weekly basis. Based on communication units used by the children, they were classified as "talkative," "average," or "taciturn." The "talkative" children were described as talking more to peers and adults and they used language more often for (1) giving information to peers and adults, (2) seeking information from adults, and (3) for the purpose of controlling their peers. Although measurable differences between the two groups were found, no reasons could be cited to explain the differences other than the teacher variable and/or program, which unfortunately, was not described. While the measuring instruments used might provide a teacher with some information about children and their language development, it is quite unlikely that the hypothesis suggested in this study was tested, in that there were no controlled independent variables. Rather, this is a well-described observational study of the procedures used to assess the language of 29 children.

The attention of the reader of this review is called to the *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* published by Academic Press. During 1969, approximately 140 studies were reported in the areas of verbal learning, recall and retention, and other related verbal processes. Although too numerous to review here, it is suggested that the reader or researcher concerned with basic studies in verbal learning consult the journal itself.

ORAL COMMUNICATION

Shriner and Sprague[19] investigated the accuracy and latency of children's identification of speech signals presented under three different rates of time-compression. Fifty-one elementary school children with no significant hearing losses were included in the study. Seventeen subjects were randomly assigned to each of three conditions, each subject receiving one treatment. Results showed that the mean percentage of word identification on a 50-item test decreased slightly between 30% and 50% speech compression. Between 50% and 70% speech compression, a large decrement in the percentage of correct responses occurred. The mean latencies for both the incorrect and correct responses were significantly less at the 50% treatment than at the 30% and 70% treatments. The incorrect mean latency scores were also significantly different from the correct mean latency scores with more reaction time noted for the incorrect condition. It was concluded that 50% of the time element of a speech signal could be removed without any appreciable effects in the degradation of intelligibility.

An evaluation of the effect of oral responding on young children's acquisition of standard sentence structures was conducted by Gupta and Stern.[20] Forty Negro children (ranging in age from 43 to 55 months) from four day care centers in Los Angeles were included in the study. All children were given the PPVT and a pre-test and were assigned on a stratified random basis to one

[19]Thomas H. Shriner and Robert L. Sprague, "Effects of Time-Compressed Speech Signals on Children's Identification Accuracy and Latency Measures," *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 7 (June, 1969) 532-540.

[20]Willa Gupta and Carolyn Stern, "Comparative Effectiveness of Speaking Vs. Listening in Improving Spoken Language of Disadvantaged Young Children," *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 38 (Fall, 1969) 54-57.

of the two treatment groups. Identical sequences of five to fifteen minute daily lessons plus two days of testing were presented under two treatment conditions, speaking and not speaking. The instruction extended over a period of five days. Posttesting followed the instruction and retention tests were administered to the children five weeks later. A significant difference at the .01 level was found favoring the speaking group. A transfer task with verbalization to entirely different pictures produced similar significant treatment effects, again at the .01 level. The children performed as well on the retention tests five weeks later. The difference between the two groups was attributed to scores on the verbalization subtest, as both groups demonstrated equal facility in identification.

An attempt to discover whether differences in the control of certain syntactic structures existed between children of two distinct subcultural groups was reported by Osser and others.[21] Sixteen lower-class Negro children and sixteen middle-class white children with the mean age for each group being 5.0 years were selected for inclusion in the study. The children were given two tasks: an imitation task and a comprehension task. In the former, the child was required to repeat a sentence after the experimeter. The comprehension task required the child to select, from a set of three pictures, one corresponding to a sentence spoken by the experimenter. Knowledge of the grammatical relations contained in the test sentences was taken to be implied by successful performance of the tasks. All errors in the imitation test were recorded. Two imitation scores were assigned: a critical structure error representing the number of sentences incorrectly imitated and a total error score, the total number of deviations. A comprehension error score represented simply the number of incorrect choices made in the comprehension task. Significant differences were found favoring the white middle-class subjects on the critical structure error, the total error, and the comprehension error score. When dialect variations were taken into consideration, the differences between means were reduced. However, differences were still significant favoring white middle-class subjects. The authors concluded that imitation of the sentence is a meaning-processing task. If not processed through a child's meaning system, the sentences were at least processed through some structural and phonological components of the child's linguistic system. These results have implications for the education of Negro lower-class children, since the language of the classroom is usually standard English. Teachers' expectations of children's control over dialect differences is unrealistic according to the authors. From the study of the tables, it appears that both groups did about equally well on some tasks. It might have been beneficial to analyze more carefully exactly which tasks produced similar results and which tasks showed the two groups differing greatly.

Nolan and Morris[22] investigated the effects of active and passive listening on learning and compared learning at normal listening rates with listening at compressed rates. The sample included 360 students in grades 4 through 7 who were legally blind. The treatments studied included mode of listening, type of material, and rate of listening. The three listening modes included: (1) continuous listening; (2) lis-

[21]Harry Osser, Marilyn D. Wang, and Farida Zaid, "The Young Child's Ability to Imitate and Comprehend Speech: A Comparison of Two Subcultural Groups," *Child Development,* 40 (December, 1969) 1063-1075.

[22]Carson Y. Nolan and June E. Morris, "Learning by Blind Students Through Active and Passive Listening," *Exceptional Children,* 36 (November, 1969) 173-181.

tening interrupted four times for 45 second periods to allow subjects to review mentally what they had heard; and (3) listening interrupted at four intervals for four-minute periods to allow subjects to make notes on what they had heard. Rates of listening were 175 and 225 wpm. The types of material included literature, social studies, and science. The results indicated significant differences in comprehension at the normal listening rate (175 wpm) as compared to listening at compressed rates under almost every condition. Comprehension was highest for the note taking mode under the compressed rate. In 8 out of 32 cases the "time-to-think" mode resulted in higher comprehension than did continuous listening. The question is raised that perhaps the increased comprehension under compressed rate was a result of time intervals to assimilate information and not the result of active involvement, i.e. note taking.

Wakefield and Silvaroli[23] attempted to determine the difference in speech patterns as measured by the Indiana Conference Scheme of 1959 among low socio-economic Negro, Spanish surname, and Anglo children entering first grade. Further, this study attempted to gain insight into whether such a difference, if it existed, was influenced more by ethnic or economic backgrounds of the children. A random sample of 20 beginning first grade pupils who qualified as low socio-economic on the Warner Index were chosen for each subgroup in the study. Oral language was elicited from the children in a standardized manner, and was tape recorded, transcribed and analyzed. No significant differences were found in the mean scores of the three groups. In addition, specific sentence patterns were not significantly different for any of these groups, except for Pattern I, requests or commands. The similarity found seemed to indicate that the economic background appeared to be a stronger influence on language than the ethnic background. This suggests that, instead of concentrating on unique materials for each ethnic group, the school should focus on the general adjustment to the language system of the school environment. The authors did not note the language that the child spoke in the testing situation nor did they mention the ethnic group of the test administrator.

WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Composition

Woodfin[24] reported a study of written expression of third-grade children. Approximately 250 children drawn from a large southern California metropolitan school district were included in the study. Three groups of third grade children wrote compositions on topics of their own choosing once every two weeks. One group wrote for twenty minutes; one for ninety minutes; the third for any amount of time from zero to 225 minutes. The children in the three groups did not differ significantly from each other in chronological age, I.Q., socio-economic status, average language test score, or initial quality of writing as measured by the *McClellan Scale*. Five trials were held two weeks apart to see whether the relationship between time and quality was consistent over a period of time. Three judges rated each composition with the average of their three scores being used for analysis purposes. The 225 minute group rated significantly higher than the

[23]Mary W. Wakefield and N. J. Silvaroli, "A Study of Oral Language Patterns of Low Socio-economic Groups," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (April, 1969) 622-624.

[24]Mary Jo Woodfin, "The Quality of Written Expression of Third-Grade Children Under Differing Time Limits," *The Journal of Experimental Education,* 37 (Spring, 1969) 89-91.

other two groups in all five trials; the ninety minute group significantly higher than the twenty minute group in all but one of the trials. If quality in written expression is the primary goal, then this study indicates that the best way to obtain quality is to give children a time choice within long periods of time.

Vernon Smith[25] examined teacher judgment as it exists and operates in the evaluation of themes in elementary and secondary classrooms. Over 200 subjects who were classroom teachers, students in undergraduate and graduate classes in English and education, or nonteachers who were composition readers or composition reader applicants comprised the sample in this study. The most unique finding was that a significant number, between 10 and 20%, of classroom teachers charged with the responsibility of teaching students to write in grades one through twelve have judgment, as measured by the procedures in this study, contrary to that of experts in the teaching of composition. It was also found that differences in judgment due to experience, academic background, and professional training could not be substantiated. This does not mean that they do not exist, but simply that they were not measured by this test.

Auguste and Nalven[26] compared the effects of i/t/a and TO instruction in the first grade on children's creative writing skill in the second grade. The sample included sixty second grade children in a middle-class, suburban school system. The ITA subsample consisted of 15 boys and 15 girls who had been trained in i/t/a the previous year. They had already shifted to TO by the time of this study. The TO sample (again 15 boys and 15 girls) had been in a TO first grade the previous year. The two subsamples were matched on Lorge-Thorndike scores and on the *Metropolitan Reading Achievement Test.* All participating teachers were experienced and had been trained in i/t/a at special workshops. As part of a larger ongoing longitudinal study, the teachers taught i/t/a and TO classes on an annually alternating basis. The children were instructed to write a different story on each of three consecutive days. The children were given 1/2 hour to complete each story with the i/t/a pupils being instructed to use TO writing in their stories. Three judges, all experienced primary teachers who had no knowledge about or involvement in the study, rated each of the 60 children's stories on a 1 to 3 basis: 1 for less than average creativity, 2 for average and 3 for more than average creativity for a second grader. The results showed that the i/t/a group's range of scores was significantly higher than the TO group at the .01 level. All three judges agreed 41% of the time; 2 or 3 judges agreed 99% of the time. This, according to the authors, suggested an acceptable degree of inter-judge reliability. The authors felt that the i/t/a program made it possible for children to express themselves creatively in writing. The authors did not mention the possibility that the difference could quickly diminish—possibly even in the current school year.

Spelling

Albert Yee[27] attempted to ascertain the value of using phonic generalizations

[25]Vernon H. Smith, "Measuring Teacher Judgment in the Evaluation of Written Composition," *Research in the Teaching of English,* 2 (Fall, 1969) 181-195.

[26]Joanne A. Auguste, and Frederic B. Nalven, "ITA and TO Training in the Development of Children's Creative Writing," *Research in the Teaching of English* (Fall, 1969) 178-180.

[27]Albert H. Yee, "Is the Phonetic Generalization Hypothesis in Spelling Valid?" The Journal of Experimental Education, 37 (Summer, 1969) 82-91.

in spelling instruction by dealing with pupils in 106 classes in grades two-six. The subjects were randomly assigned to one of four groups: Group A received pre- and post-testing and instruction in phonetic generalizations; Group B received pre- and post-testing but no phonetic instruction; Group C received only post-testing and phonetic rules; Group D received only the post-testing. The instructional period for the four groups lasted two weeks. Results indicated that girls scored significantly higher than boys; no significant relationships were noted for the effects of pretesting and phonics generalizations. However, pretested groups scored higher than non-pretested groups at all grade levels; there was no advantage between phonetic and non-phonetic groups. The pattern of means for the four groups was as follows: B C A D.

An evaluation of the use of an experimental pencil which allows a left-handed child to see more clearly what he is writing was performed by Dorothy Ure[28]. Forty-four left-handed children from two infant schools and from two primary corporation schools were included in the study. Procedures for the subjects involved the writing of material from a piece of unseen dictation. Each child wrote the same piece of dictation twice, once with the experimental pencil and once with a standard pencil. Although improvement was marginal in most cases, it was noted that improvement was established stably in a one-test trial. This suggests the possibility of cumulative beneficial effects which might be expected from the early use of the pencil in appropriate cases.

A rather unique study was reported by Fremer and Anastasio[29]. Since there have been a number of indications that the time has arrived to employ the computers as an item writer, it was decided that writing spelling items seemed a particularly desirable starting point for a limited demonstration of computer potential. The particular type of spelling items which was considered presented a student with four incorrectly spelled words and one correctly spelled word. Since the investigators decided to make "computer assistance" their first goal, they attempted to produce a pool of misspelled words to serve as a resource file for an item writer, rather than to attempt to produce complete items. The five following steps were carried out: (a) developed rules for generating misspelled words; (b) wrote a computer program for applying the rules to words; (c) selected a group of words to serve as a data base; (d) ran the program; and (e) evaluated the computer output. A list of misspelled words previously used in spelling tests was supplied as a reference document for discovering error-generation rules. Two psychologists developed a total of forty rules and these were programmed in SNOBOH, a language developed at Bell Telephone Laboratories especially to facilitate the handling of strings of symbols or characters by a computer.

Handwriting

A study by Otto and Rarick[30] attempted to determine whether there is an optimum time for the transition from manuscript to

[28]Dorothy Ure, "Spelling Performance of Left-Handed School Children as Affected by the Use of a Pencil Modified to Increase Visual Feedback," *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 7 (April, 1969) 220-230.

[29]John Fremer and Ernest J. Anastasio, "Computer-Assisted Item Writing—I (Spelling Items). Journal of Educational Measurement, 6, No. 2, (Summer, 1969) 69-74.

[30]Wayne Otto and G. Lawrence Rarick, "Effect of Time of Transition from Manuscript to Cursive Writing Upon Subsequent Performance in Handwriting, Spelling, and Reading," *The Journal of Educational Research*, 62, No. 4 (January, 1969) 211-216.

cursive writing in terms of subsequent performance in handwriting, spelling and reading. Subjects were selected from the entire population of fourth and sixth-grade pupils in Wisconsin who had made the transition from manuscript to cursive handwriting at one of the four following times: first semester, grade 2; second semester, grade 2; first semester, grade 3; second semester, grade 3. A brief questionnaire was sent to all public school districts having at least 100 pupils in the elementary school grades. The chief school administrator was asked to indicate (1) the system of handwriting instruction in use, (2) how long the system had been in use, (3) the grade and semester at which the transition from manuscript to cursive writing was made, (4) how long the transition time had been in effect, and (5) the number of school buildings in the district. When it was found that instructional materials published by the Zaner-Bloser Company were used in most districts, the decision was to sample subjects only from those districts. The sample included fifteen children of each sex at each grade level from each transition time for a total of 240 children. Results indicated that the school term when the transition from manuscript to cursive handwriting was made was not critical in terms of the child's later elementary school reading performance. Thus the argument that it is important to delay the transition to cursive handwriting until later primary years after symbol perception is presumably well established was not supported by the data. Although the impact of manuscript writing upon initial symbol perception was not fully clarified by this study, there appears to be support for reconsideration of the effect of introducing cursive writing in grade 1 upon symbol perception in reading. In view of the fact that (a) there is little evidence to indicate that manuscript writing has a positive effect upon symbol perception and (b) the ultimate objective continues to be legible cursive writing, introduction of cursive writing in grade 1 would appear to be defensible, at least in terms of its impact upon reading performance.

An attempt to examine the determinants or correlates of legibility was reported by Don Anderson[31]. Writing samples of 588 children in grades four, five and six were examined. Analysis of the writing samples included measurement for size or height of letters and the use of a slant scale. The findings indicated that (1) the girls write better than boys as indicated by the two measures included in the study; (2) girls' writing is more likely to have a perpendicular slant than boys; (3) legibility of children's hand-writing improves from grade 4 to grade 6; (4) the uniformity of size increases also from grades 4 to 6; (5) boys' and girls' writing gets smaller as they move from grades 4 to 6; (6) the more legible the writing, the larger the writing; (7) the more legible the writing, the more uniform the slant; (8) the larger the writing the less uniform the size; (9) the more pronounced the slant, the more uniform the slant.

STUDIES IN READING

Pre-Kindergarten Programs

An attempt to test the findings reported by Bereiter and Engelmann was conducted by Reidford and Berzonsky[32]. They included two classes of 24 children in their sample selected according to Head Start criteria. The two groups attended pre-

[31] Don W. Anderson, "What Makes Writing Legible?" *Elementary School Journal*, 69 (April, 1969) 364-369.

[32] Philip Reidford and Michael Berzonsky, "Field Test of an Academically Oriented Preschool," *Elementary School Journal*, 69 (February, 1969) 271-276.

school 2-1/2 hours daily five days a week. Instruction for six months was from the Bereiter-Engelmann curriculum for language, arithmetic, and reading. The tests used included the *Stanford-Binet* and the *Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities* (two subtests: Auditory-Vocal Automatic and the Auditory Vocal Association). The results indicated that long-term exposure to the Bereiter-Engelmann preschool curriculum not only raises intelligence quotients, but also, and more importantly, stimulates development in reasoning ability, in grammatical usage and in understanding as measured by the two subtests of the ITPA. This study seems to indicate strong support for the Bereiter-Engelmann type curriculum, particularly in long-term programs.

Pendergast[33] investigated the effect of two different nursery-school programs—Montessori and conventional day nursery—on the development of perceptual motor skills and receptive language. Approximately 120 children—40 Montessori, 40 conventional, and 40 with no nursery as an additional control—were included in the study. This study of alternative treatments lasted for seven months with variables measured on a pre- and post-test basis by the Frostig, the *Boston Speech Sound Picture Discrimination Test*, and the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test*. The results indicated that in eye-hand coordination, the Montessori group showed significantly greater gains than the conventional group and greater, but not significant, gains than the non-nursery school group; the non-school group scored significantly better than the conventional group. In auditory discrimination, the differences in gains between the Montessori group and the conventional group were minimal favoring Montessori; both were statistically greater than for the non-nursery school group. This suggests that this might be caused by the socio-economic status of the children. That is, middle class children may get much more enrichment in the home, and therefore benefit less from this early education than do lower class children.

A study by Karnes and Hodgins[34] examined the effect of a highly structured program for preschool disadvantaged children with a traditional nursery school program. The highly structured activity was designed to compensate for the effects of early deprivation, to ameliorate learning deficits accruing from such deprivation, and to accelerate the rate of growth in areas that would enable disadvantaged children to cope more successfully with later school tasks. The principal focus of the daily schedule for the subjects in the highly structured program was upon three structured learning periods devoted to the teaching of math concepts, language arts and reading readiness, and social studies-science. The language arts and reading readiness curriculum centered on vocabulary and language development; teaching the child to label, to make more precise verbal observations, to generalize, to use grammatically correct forms, to understand and to ask questions, and to formulate answers. In addition there were activities to develop the visual and auditory discriminations necessary for reading readiness and to develop visual-motor coordination. At the end of the 7-month program interval, the IQ of the children as measured by the *Stanford-Binet* showed highly structured classes presenting a mean gain of

[33]Raymond Pendergast, "Pre-Reading Skills Developed in Montessori and Conventional Nursery Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, 69 (December, 1969) 135-141.

[34]Merle B. Karnes and Audrey Hodgins, "The Effects of a Highly Structured Preschool Program on the Measured Intelligence of Culturally Disadvantaged Four-Year-Old Children," *Psychology in the Schools*, 6, No. 1 (1969).

14.3 I.Q. points. At the beginning of the program, 29% of the children occupied the low average range and no child fell in the superior range. At the conclusion of the program interval, no child remained in the low average range while 22% tested within the superior range. No child regressed and only one child made a gain below 5 points. More than half of the children gained from 10 to 19 points, gains greater than those reported by most studies involving a comparable preschool instructional period.

A study which sought to assess the short and long-term effects of differential training upon thirty children from low income families was reported by Clasen and others[35]. Thirty subjects were randomly assigned to two treatment conditions. Fifteen received a concentrated language development program which included use of the *Peabody Language Development Kit,* language games, and other activities concentrating on language skill building. The other fifteen children in an alternative treatment group received language training only incidentally as part of a more conventional preschool program. The treatment period for both groups lasted for eight weeks, three hours per day. The results indicated that there were no significant differences between the two groups on intelligence test scores as measured by the *Stanford-Binet.* However, there were significant differences on all three main sources of variation on the ITPA. The two most important differences, those concerned with groups and with pre- and posttests, were qualified by the interaction between them. Both the language and the incidental language groups made significant gains in language skills as measured by the ITPA, but the significantly greater gains obtained by the language group accounts for the significant overall difference between the two groups. The follow-up study, conducted at the conclusion of the first year of kindergarten revealed that the language group mean on the total ITPA still exceeded the mean of the non-language group. From this it was concluded that an advantage in linguistic skills developed in a short-term compensatory program could persist over time.

Preschool Reading and Readiness Activities

Koppman and LaPray[36] attempted to discover the relationship between teachers' ratings of reading readiness and pupil performance on three measures. The study involved some 478 kindergarten subjects in the San Diego Unified School District. Experimental Group 1 did word-matching activities for ten minutes per day; Experimental Group 2 did letter-matching activities for ten minutes a day; the control group had no special readiness training. Activities were continued for 48 days with each teacher dealing with both experimental treatments. At the end of the study, three informal tests of letter copying, letter knowledge, and word matching were administered to the subjects, and teachers were asked to rate pupils on their readiness to read. The results indicated that the teachers of the two experimental treatment groups were significantly more accurate in predicting performance on reading readiness tests than were teachers in the control schools. Teachers were able to predict reading readiness in a significant manner across socio-economic levels. Also found was a significant relationship between teachers'

[35]Robert E. Clasen, Jo Ellen Spear, and Michael P. Tomaro, "A Comparison of the Relative Effectiveness of Two Types of Preschool Compensatory Programming," *The Journal of Educational Research,* 62, No. 9 (May-June, 1969) 401-405.

[36]Patricia S. Koppman and Margaret H. LaPray, "Teacher Ratings and Pupil Reading Readiness Scores," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (April,1969) 603-608.

ratings and pupil readiness scores when subjects were categorized by maturity. Correlation coefficients also indicated that when groups were examined according to sex, teachers were equally effective in determining pupil readiness for both sexes.

Ralph Scott[37] reported an experiment concerned with assessment of the relationship between skill in seriation and various measures yielded by the *Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test.* A secondary experimental obective was to evaluate the extent to which skill in seriating was associated with social class and race. The subjects included all kindergarten students of four Waterloo, Iowa schools and they were selected so that social class and racial differences could be assessed. The design consisted of comparing the kindergarten subjects' scores on an experimental seriation test with their achievement on an established readiness measure, the *Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test.* If Piaget and Inhelder were correct in postulating a close relationship in the child's early years between classification and seriation functions, results should then yield a high correlation between the Seriation Test and the Reading Readiness and Number Readiness subtests of the Metropolitan. Results indicated that, as predicted, seriation tests were (a) stable, (b) significantly correlated with both Reading Readiness and Number Readiness and (c) significantly higher for white subjects. Contrary to prediction, no significant social class differences were obtained on the Seriation Test. The results appeared to support the position of Piaget and Inhelder that the early growth of intelligence is characterized by a strong interactive effect between seriation and classification. Educational implications of the study are discussed in terms of the importance of integrating perceptual and language activities into compensatory programs for preschool disadvantaged children.

A study of the predictive validity of English and Spanish versions of a readiness test was reported by Personke and Davis[38]. The *Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test* in English and in Spanish was administered at the beginning of Grade one to 38 Spanish speaking children. The *Metropolitan Achievement Test,* Primary I Battery, was administered in English only at the end of the Grade one year. The correlations between the readiness test scores, both in English and Spanish, and the achievement test scores were similar. Coefficients of correlation were somewhat higher for the English-administered readiness tests, but not significantly so. The authors conclude that there is apparently no important bias introduced by administering a reading readiness test in English to Spanish speaking children.

Beginning Reading Instruction

There is a continued interest demonstrated by research staffs in the problems and issues related to beginning reading instruction. From both research interests and actual classroom practice, we can assume that reading will be taught to four-and-five-year-old children.

A survey, reported by La Conte,[39] was made of the opinions and practices of 777 kindergarten teachers randomly chosen in two northeastern states. Through a questionnaire which sought information on

[37]Ralph Scott, "Social Class, Race, Seriating and Reading Readiness: A Study of Their Relationship at the Kindergarten Level," *The Journal of Genetic Psychology,* 115 (September, 1969) 87-96.

[38]Carl R. Personke, Jr. and O. L. Davis, Jr., "Predictive Validity of English and Spanish Versions of a Readiness Test," *Elementary School Journal,* 70 (November, 1969) 79-85.

[39]Christine La Conte, "Reading in Kindergarten," *The Reading Teacher,* 23 (November 1969) 116-120.

opinions, reading skills taught, and reading materials employed, it was discovered that teachers of long experience were more negative about teaching kindergarten pupils to read than were relatively inexperienced teachers. Some 50 percent of the teachers indicated some teaching of reading, 31 percent regular teaching of reading, while 19 percent reported no teaching of reading.

Teachers (43.6%) reported that they taught reading because they like to do so. More than 60 percent of those who did not teach reading said that schools objected to it. Almost 40 percent of the teachers indicated that they used reading materials regularly, while 27 percent reported they did not use materials.

About 90 percent of the teachers expressed a preference for using informal rather than formal materials. Teachers generally agreed that kindergarten children are not ready to read, yet many are being exposed to mass instruction in reading readiness and beginning reading skills. The reviewer did not name the two states surveyed and some question of the value of the questionnaire is raised. It is interesting to note that the survey yielded results similar to those Bernard Belden, a N.Y. State teacher, reported in his doctoral dissertation written in 1955.

Williams[40] studied the effectiveness of different training methods necessary to teach kindergarten children to discriminate letter-like forms. The researcher tested 32 pupils but did not mention the method used to select the pupils.

Three conditions were compared: 1) discrimination training where the comparison stimuli were quite different from the standard; 2) discrimination training where the comparison stimuli are transformatives (rotations and reversals) of the standards; 3) reproduction training.

Discrimination training in which the comparison stimuli were transformations was superior to training where the comparison stimuli were totally different forms.

The experiment was repeated with a new sample of 32 kindergarten pupils late in the year to determine effects of maturity. Overall performance was superior to a significant degree.

It seemed clear that effectiveness of readiness training depends on particular technique used and the time training was given. Less time should be used in tracing and copying.

A study was conducted by Braun[41] to investigate the summated effects of stimulus cues and affective loading (interest) as factors in acquisition and retention of textual stimuli at the kindergarten levels with 240 randomly chosen kindergarten children. Subjects were presented eight words—rocket, football, airplane, truck, tea set, playhouse, ballerina and fairy in four treatment groups; auditory-visual boy-word; auditory-visual girl-word, auditory boy-word, auditory girl-word.

When auditory was compared with auditory-visual treatment, mean differences favored the auditory treatment in boys and girls. Differences in interest-loading effects in the auditory treatment favored sex of subject associated with predicted sex-loading. Interest-loading in auditory-visual treatment indicated highly significant differences for low ability girls and boys.

The study suggests need for further study of auditory versus auditory-visual treatments and effects of sex-related interest-loading words.

[40]Joanna P. Williams. "Training Kindergarten Children to Discriminate Letter-Like Forms," *American Educational Research Journal,* VI, (Nov. 1969) 501-514.

[41]Carl Braun, "Interest-Loading and Modality Effects on Textual Response Acquisition." *Reading Research Quarterly,* IV, (Spring, 1969) 428-444.

Rubin and Pollack[42] studied the auditory perception of 205 kindergarten boys using Pollack's Auditory Perception Kit of thirty miniature toys or objects, the names of which each begin with a different initial sound. The groups were instructed three times weekly for a total of 50 half-hour sessions. The experimental group received training with Pollack's A-P Kit and the control group was given a standardized readiness program stressing listening skills.

Tests indicated that A-P training was successful in aiding kindergarten pupils to learn to discriminate word sounds. The study demonstrates that A-P training makes it possible to teach the discrimination of word sounds to kindergarten boys.

A study concerning the intralist similarity of words, repeating aspects of the Samuels and Jeffrey Study (1966) was conducted by McCutcheon and McDowell.[43] Eighty-two kindergarten children served in the study in which they were taught three lists of four words each which represented decreasing degrees of intralist similarity. List I contained four 4-letter words constructed from four different letters of the alphabet. List II included four 4-letter words constructed from eight different letters, while List III had four 4-letter words constructed from sixteen different letters of the alphabet.

The analysis of the errors made after training showed that the largest number of errors occurred on List II. The data supports the hypotheses that high quality impedes rate of learning and that high intralist similarity in beginning reading results in greater word recognition skills and a lesser tendency to make falsely generalized responses to words. The reader found the study well described but lacking in information on the ability or background of the children examined.

A study evaluating the relative advantages of teaching reading in first grade with a language experience versus a basal reading program was reported by Riendeau.[44]

Forty-four children taught in two classrooms were studied. The researcher implied that the language experience approach proved superior but a review of the tables reveals that an error was made by the author in which results reported were grossly different from those made by the author. According to the table the basal reading group clustered between 2.5 and 4.5, while the language experience group clustered between 0 and 3.0. This is in direct contrast to the author's statement that the basal group clustered between 0 and 3.0 and the language experience group between 2.5 and 4.5.

I.T.A. remains a subject of interest to many researchers studying beginning reading instructions. Shapiro and Willford[45] reports on a study of 250 randomly selected children to determine the relative reading and spelling achievement of two I.T.A. groups, one of which began its formal reading in kindergarten, and the other in first grade.

An analysis of grade scores suggests that after 5 months in the first grade, the "kindergarten" group achieved significantly higher than "first grade" group in word meaning, paragraph meaning, spelling and word study skills. Tests given at the end of first grade showed "kindergarten" group

[42] Lawrence Rubin and Cecelia Pollack, "Auditory Perception in Kindergarten Children," *The Journal of Special Education*, Vol. 3, No. 2 (Summer 1969) 155-161.

[43] Beth A. McCutcheon and Eugene E. McDowell. "Intralist Similarity and Acquisition and Generalization of Word Recognition," *The Reading Teacher*, 23 (Nov. 1969) 103-107.

[44] Betty Riendeau, "Since Children Are Creative —Involve Them in Reading," *The Reading Teacher*, 22 (February 1969) 408-413.

[45] Bernard J. Shapiro and Robert E. Willford, "I.T.A.-Kindergarten or First Grade," *The Reading Teacher*, 22 (January 1969) 307-311.

superior in all but vocabulary tests. At the end of second grade kindergarten group continued to outperform "first grade" group with scores significantly different at the .05 level.

While the study is well described, the authors do not state whether the "first grade" group attended kindergarten and if so, what was done. The question of teacher effect was not accounted for.

The effect of I.T.A. on disadvantaged children was reported by Holmes and Rose.[46] The study suggests that disadvantaged first grade children are often not ready to read with T.O. or I.T.A. but that once disadvantaged children (20) are ready to learn to read, I.T.A. enables them to learn more rapidly than similar children taught with T.O. This study does not report on teacher influences in the study nor do they tell which tests were used in reporting results finding. For example, it is stated: "In I.T.A. and T.O. some children are reading below grade level at the end of the year." The test used to determine status was not mentioned.

Thoburn[47] compared two I.T.A. approaches: words first and phonics first with 181 pupils from 10 first grade classes.

The phonics first group had significantly higher I.T.A. reading achievement scores on measures of word recognition, comprehension and word study skills. They also scored significantly higher in T.O. reading achievement scores on measures of comprehension and word recognition. The author failed to indicate the duration of the study. Otherwise, it is generally well described.

Hardman[48] evaluated the use of a simplified phonemic alphabet in the writing and reading of beginning readers. Children were presented aural-visual symbols from the first day of school. Group writing of the symbols preceded individual writing. As children developed a visual memory of words they learned to spell the words written. By the end of the school year every child wrote something of importance to himself each day. From test results and observations it was assumed that the simplified phonemic alphabet was judged to be of value to all the children involved. One of the problems with the study was an inadequate description of the population. There was no attempt to control numerous variables.

Six research teams reported on the results of their original first grade studies when the pupils had completed the third grade. Fry[49] compared the results of beginning reading using I.T.A., Diacritical Marking System and T.O.

At the end of third grade, results indicated that there were no significant differences among the methods in silent or oral reading. While there was a significant difference in favor of I.T.A. pupils in ability to read phonetically regular words there was no difference when pupils read high frequency words. In the writing sample there were no significant differences and no method was significantly better for boys or girls or for bright or dull children. The researcher failed to report the number of children included in this study at the beginning of the first grade. Otherwise the study is well-described and seems to be designed adequately.

Hayes and Wuest[50] compared I.T.A. a

[46]Jack A. Holmes and Ivan M. Rose, "Disadvantaged Children and the Effectiveness of I.T.A." *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (January 1969) 350-356.
[47]Nitetis Shufelt Thoburn, "A Comparative Study of Two I.T.A. Reading Methods: Words First and Phonics First," *Dissertation Abstracts* (1969) p. 228-A.
[48]Helen W. Hardman, "Exploration With a Simplified Phonemic Alphabet," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (March 1969) 547-549.
[49]Edward Fry, "Comparison of Beginning Reading With I.T.A., DMS, and T.O. After Three Years," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (January 1969) 357-362.
[50]Robert B. Hayes and Richard C. Wuest, "A

phonics word power program, T.O. and a specific basic series. They found that in grade one the pupils taught with Scott Foresman material read the most books but the children using the other three programs also advanced in silent reading achievement. The phonics and word power group scored highest in reading attitude in grade one but read few books. The Fry and Gates word list results indicated greater first grade word recognition achievement for I.T.A. and Lippincott than for the other two approaches.

In all three grades I.T.A. pupils lagged significantly in number of books read other than textbooks. By the end of grade 3 I.T.A. was significantly ahead of Scott, Foresman on the Gilmore Accuracy Test and also significantly higher than Scott Foresman and Lippincott on the Gilmore Comprehension Test. Lippincott users scored significantly higher on Paragraph Meaning and Spelling than Scott and Phonics and Word Power users.

A comment made by the authors is of interest: "It appears that methods and materials as well as teachers can make a difference in the teaching of reading . . . p. 370." The reader of the study finds that no one program was better than all others in all respects. Each program seemed to have strengths and weaknesses.

Harris and Morrison[51] made a final report of their study of the progress in reading of disadvantaged urban children who were taught to read through two basic approaches: Skills-centered and language experience. The Skills-centered approach included two methods—a basal reader method and a phonovisual method. The Language Experience approach also had two variants—a regular language experience method and a language experience audio-visual method.

The results suggested that there were no significant differences between the two approaches. In the first year it was evident that three methods produced good results. The Phonovisual Method did not and in the second year a negative correlation existed between amount of time spent teaching phonics and reading achievement.

At the beginning of first grade boys and girls tended to balance on readiness scores. However, achievement differences favored girls in grades two and three. Children who had attended kindergarten had consistently higher first grade pre-tests than non-kindergarten pupils. Differences were small in first grade but increased through third grade. Children identified by their first grade teachers as being early readers surpassed the total population on all pre- and post-tests.

This study indicated that teacher is more important than method. It also seems to recommend planned reading readiness activities in the kindergarten. Boys from disadvantaged homes are similar on readiness tasks to girls but seem to be effected less positively by later teaching.

The fourth report by Schneyer[52] described reading achievement of first grade children taught by a linguistic and basal reader approach—extended into the third grade. The results suggest that neither of the two approaches were more effective. At the end of grade 3 pupils in the linguistic approach scored significantly higher in rate of oral reading and running words, while basal groups were significantly higher in

Three Year Look at I.T.A., Lippincott, Phonics and Word Power, and Scott, Foresman," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (Jan. 1969) 363-370.

[51]Albert J. Harris and Coleman Morrison, "The Craft Project: A Final Report," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (January 1969) 335-340.

[52]J. Wesley Schneyer, "Reading Achievement of First Grade Children Taught by a Linguistic Approach and a Basal Reader Approach—Extended into Third Grade," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (January 1969) 315-319.

word study skills. Girls performed better at the end of grade 3 in spelling and on four measures of the writing sample. Boys did as well as girls on all other measures.

The reader can be mystified by a lack of complete reporting on a subsample of third grade pupils given additional tests at the end of grade 3.

The effectiveness of language arts and basal reader approaches was made by Stauffer and Hammond.[53] The authors reported on 22 third grade classrooms—12 using language arts approaches and 10 the basal reader. The group test results indicated no significant differences between groups in various aspects of reading performance. However, on individual tests of word recognition and oral reading the language arts approach resulted in significantly superior performance. The language arts groups were also reported as writing more words correctly.

An interest note was that the mean teacher age of language arts group was 34 and was 52 for basal group. No statement was included of method used in assigning teachers. There was also no description of "effective" use of basal readers for BR group.

In another third year study Sheldon, Stinson and Peebles[54] raised questions related to those children in the study who had failed, whether they could have been detected earlier, the effect of sex and how the reading difficulties were being ameliorated.

106 pupils of an original population of 324 were studied. The largest number of disabled readers from the linguistic group also came from the group with lowest socio-economic status. 53 disabled readers were randomly selected from the 106 pupils available and were studied intensively. Of these, 8 were referred for corrective lens and 3 were found to have severe hearing losses. Girls were superior to boys in accuracy and comprehension. 75 percent of boys and 17 percent of girls read word-by-word. Boys also had more difficulty in word attack skills. 34 percent of population failed the Wepman Test with boys outnumbering girls 2 to 1. Girls had little difficulty in letter naming while 50 percent of boys made one or more errors in identifying lower case letters.

Investigators felt that all the disabled readers could have been identified as potentially poor readers at the beginning of grade 1. They also felt that teacher variable was more important than methods used because teacher must identify potential failures and plan appropriate programs for them.

An interesting study of teachers' objectives and questions in Primary Reading was conducted by Bartolome[55] in Regina, Saskatchewan schools.

Observers noted the objectives and questions asked by 18 teachers randomly selected from 58 primary teachers.

The results indicated that 631 questions were asked in grade 1, 2,492 in grade 2 and 2,353 in grade 3 during the time of the study. The average number of questions asked was 69.23, length of lesson was 30 minutes and of the questions recorded 47.54 percent were classified as demanding memory while 25.94 percent involved analysis. Application and evaluation questions were rarely used.

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[53]Russell G. Stauffer and G. and W. Dorsey Hammond, "The Effectiveness of Language Arts and Basic Reader Approaches to First-Grade Reading Instruction Extended into Third Grade," *Reading Research Quarterly,* IV (Summer, 1969), 468-499.

[54]William D. Sheldon, Franga Stinson, and James D. Peebles, "Comparison of Three Methods of Reading: A Continuation Study in the Third Grade," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (March 1969) 539-546.

[55]Paz I. Bartolome, "Teachers' Objectives and Questions in Primary Reading," *The Reading Teacher,* 23 (October 1969) 27-33.

Analyses of lessons showed that nature of reading lessons and materials read influenced type of questions asked. Teachers asked more analyzing, synthesizing and organizing questions of high ability children. Teachers' objectives were recorded. The most frequently stated objectives involved analysis 54.43 percent and application 22.17 percent.

The reader of the study suggests that the teachers were probably better than average and probably reflected the fact that they were observed.

Programs and Grouping Practices

A number of studies are related to the disadvantaged and six of these are mentioned in this report.

Libby[56] reported on differences in reading performances of inner and outer city first grade children matched for intelligence. After an extensive reading program, significant differences between inner and outer city groups were reported for word recognition, comprehension and total reading. Reader assumes that inner city children lose out because of an inability to pay attention in their schools.

Litcher and Johnson[57] studied the changes in attitudes towards Negroes of white elementary students after use of multiethnic readers. This limited report suggests that there is a positive effect in terms of feelings of white children towards Negroes when they use multiethnic readers.

In a limited study, not purported to be "formal research," Madison[58] explored the growth in perception in reading, writing and spelling of 31 educationally disadvantaged fourth grade pupils. Teachers taught pupils to write experience stories using their own speaking vocabulary as a source of language. Subjective observation indicated that pupils read their own experience stories better than their basal readers, showed more interest in reading and improved in spelling and handwriting during this experience.

Serwer[59] expands the report made by Harris and Morrison by pointing out that the language experience approach was effective in the CRAFT study because it aided pupils develop vocabulary and syntactic structure and expanded concept development. After a rather brief report on the results of the study, the author devotes most of the article to linguistic theory and research that supports the use of the language experience approach in teaching reading.

Rider and Martinez[60] reported on a survey of remedial reading instruction under Title I projects for 23,135 students in 17 counties throughout California. The report gives the reader a wide variety of information related to the Title I remedial programs such as number of boys, language background of pupils, use of diagnostic systems, kinds of instructional programs, teacher-pupil ratios and so forth. The evaluation of the use of the Title I moneys is left to the conjecture of the reader.

An evaluation of programmed reading

[56]Mildred Post Libby, "Differences in Reading Performances of Inner and Outer City Children Matched for Intelligence," *Education*, Vol. 90 (Nov.-Dec. 1969) 145-147.

[57]John H. Litcher and David W. Johnson. "Changes in Attitudes Toward Negroes of White Elementary School Students After Use of Multiethnic Readers," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 60, No. 2 (April 1969) 148-152.

[58]Agnes Madison, "Growth in Perception of Reading, Writing, and Spelling for the Educationally Disadvantaged," *The Reading Teacher*, 22 (March 1969) 513-515.

[59]Blanche L. Serwer, "Linguistic Support for a Method of Teaching Beginning Reading to Black Children." *Reading Research Quarterly*, IV, (Summer 1969) 449-467.

[60]Gerald S. Rider and Gilbert Martinez, "Title I and Remedial Reading for Disadvantaged Students," *California Journal of Educational Research*, XX (January 1969) 31-39.

approach in primary grades was made by Hammill and Mattleman.[61] The pupils involved were second and third graders in 16 inner city Philadelphia schools. The students were all considered low-achievers from pre-test results. Pupils were divided into three groups: one used programmed material; two used programmed material and basals; third used basal readers only. Analysis of results indicated no differences in achievement among groups. Experimenters suggested that teachers using programmed materials had not been trained to use this approach.

Two studies of I.T.A. are reported by John Downing[62] and John Downing and W. Latham.[63] In the first study Downing compares failure in I.T.A. and in T.O. On every test used with the population (not described) I.T.A. produced substantially fewer "failures" than T.O. The effect of I.T.A. was important five years after introduction.

In the second report Downing and Latham give a follow-up of children who were involved in the first I.T.A. experiment. These were 170 fifth year pupils. These pupils were compared with other pupils taught with T.O. The I.T.A. group scored in a significantly superior fashion to T.O. groups in such tests as capital letters, story comprehension, tenses, spelling, sentence completion and abbreviation. The reader arrived at the conclusion that the concrete experiences children experienced with I.T.A.'s simpler and more regular writing system have facilitated the understanding of the structure of English.

An evaluation of the effectiveness of a summer developmental program was reported by Cramer and Dorsey.[64] The pupils came from grades 4-8 in four elementary schools. The greatest reading improvement occurred in the eighth grade pupils. All of the other grade groups did improve both in reading and social characteristics.

Kasdon and Kelly[65] report on the value of in-service education for teachers of reading and find that such training is most effective when it occurs before teachers have assigned reading materials to pupils. The reader noted that the authors failed to mention the availability of different level reading resources to grade level teachers. He also is made wary of the results because of the use of one pupil per classroom for testing purposes.

One of the few studies related to class size and reading achievement was made by Balow.[66] Apparently when classes were reduced to half original size for instruction, children made gains in reading, significant at the .05 level. Boys in smaller classes made more gains than boys in control classes and in general class size favored boys more than girls. Class size seemed to lose its impact after third grade.

Vocabulary and Word Analysis

Research on vocabulary and word analysis ranges from studies of very young chil-

[61]Donald Hammill and Marciene Mattleman, "An Evaluation of a Programmed Reading Approach in the Primary Grades," *Elementary English*, 46 (March, 1969) 310-312.

[62]John Downing, "Comparison of Failure in I.T.A. and in T.O." *The Reading Teacher*, 23 (October 1969) 43-47.

[63]John Downing and W. Latham, "A Follow-up of Children in the First I.T.A. Experiment," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 39 (November 1969) 303-305.

[64]Ward Cramer and Suzanne Dorsey, "A Summer Developmental Reading Program for Rural Students," *The Reading Teacher*, 22 (May 1969) 710-713.

[65]Lawrence M. Kasdon and Dean Kelly, "Simulation: In-Service Education for Teachers of Reading," The Journal of Experimental Education, 38 (Fall 1969) 79-86.

[66]Irving H. Balow, "A Longitudinal Evaluation of Reading Achievement in Small Classes," *Elementary English*, XLVI, (February 1969) 184-187.

dren to considerations of the learning skills of high school and college students.

Trimble[67] identified through a nine part Predictive Index Test those kindergarten pupils of a population of 417 who failed five or more subtests as those who would fail to learn to read successfully and the remainder failing less than five subtests and predicted as those who would succeed. Part of the predicted failure group were taught in a special class situation while the remainder were taught in the usual manner in the first grade. Only 5 percent of the children who failed less than five subtests could be considered as failures after their first grade reading instruction while 39.5 percent of the children who failed five subtests or more could be considered as reading failures at the end of first grade.

Schools in the study located in the lower socioeconomic areas had a higher percentage of failures. The study also indicated that tested intelligence was not a guide to success in first grade reading.

Meltzer and Herse[68] studied the boundaries of written words as seen by 39 first grade children. The limitations of the study did not allow the authors to conduct an experiment and to generalize their findings but the study did suggest that it should be conducted in an experimental form to determine how children define a written word and consider its boundaries, whether children can discriminate between numbers and letters and/or words and whether children possess the concept that a whole may be made up of parts.

An investigation to measure the effect of strength of association between two words on learning to read the second word was made by Samuels and Wittrock.[69] Using first grade pupils as subjects the investigators trained pupils to react to pairs of eight words, one word of the pair already known. It was found that no order effect was found, indicating that reading acquisition was no better when words were introduced early in the training sequence or late. The word effect was significant which meant that subjects learned to read certain words more easily than others.

The finding that minimal amounts of word-association training, compared to none, produced significant increases in reading, has implications for reading instruction. Techniques which teachers use to introduce new words by writing or reading them to pupils should be encouraged. It is suggested that new words can be introduced in sentences as long as other words are familiar.

Hall[70] studied the effects of three variations in learning instruction on the word recognition performance of first and third grade children. This study was concerned with the occurrence of implicit associative responses as an aid or hindrance in learning new words. Associates of previously appearing words were falsely recognized much more frequently than were non associates. There were suggestions from this study that recognition performance can be altered by instructor-imposed learning strategies.

Children's word associations to individual letters of the alphabet were compared to adult associations by Davis and Otto.[71] The children were sixth grade

[67]Audrey C. Trimble, "Can Remedial Reading be Eliminated?" *Academic Therapy Quarterly,* Vol. V, No. 3, (Spring 1970), 207-13.

[68]Nancy S. Meltzer and Robert Herse, "The Boundaries of Written Words as Seen by First Graders," *Journal of Reading Behavior,* (Summer 1969) 3-13.

[69]S. Jay Samuels and Merlin C. Wittrock, "Word-Association Strength and Learning to Read," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* Vol. 60, No. 3 (June 1969) 248-252.

[70]James W. Hall, "Effects of Three Variations in Learning Instructions on Children's Word-Recognition Performance," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 50, No. 6 (December 1969) 461-464.

[71]Mary Lou Davis and Wayne Otto, "Children's

pupils and they responded to lower case letters in one group and upper case letters in another.

The children's responses were practically identical to that of adults with girls' responses less idiosyncratic than boys and response to upper and lower case letter forms similar. By sixth grade children's frequent responses to individual letter stimuli were similar to adults. This study is quite limited and the researchers suggest that further study in this area is warranted.

An interesting study of the utility of phonic generalizations in four selected basal reading series was completed by Carolyn Maresh.[72] The study revealed to the author some questionable aspects of the use of phonic generalizations in basal readers. Only one series reached the 70 percent minimum approach to total utility of generalizations. The causes for a low utility for phonic generalizations seemed to be that generalizations were too broad.

Hall[73] investigated children's errors in word recognition and discrimination as a test of the hypothesis of Hall and Ware made in a previous study. The subjects were first and fourth grade pupils and the experiment consisted of two phases: first, a list of 20 common words was read to each subject with the subject instructed to respond by saying the first "real" word that came to him. Next 60 words were read to subject, 20 words already presented, 20 pupils reponse words and 20 new words—these 60 presented in random order. The task was recognition of stimulus and response words and older pupils recognized these significantly better than younger pupils.

The results of the study were consistent with the hypothesis proposed to account for decreases with age of IAR. The relationship of error to age, experience seemed to be an important consideration for word study activities and the decrease in errors in learning.

Sedarat and Otto[74] examined the relationship consensuality of word association and reading ability of 20 good (10 boys and 10 girls) and 20 poor readers (10 boys and 10 girls) from fifth and sixth grade pupils. Each of the 40 readers had Lorge-Thorndike I.Q.s of 120 or better.

50 stimulus words were presented each child individually. Commonness, or consensuality, of response was determined by a table which showed the extent to which subject's word associations to stimuli are in agreement with the word associations given by other students. The achievers and underachievers did not differ in response consensuality, nor did boys' and girls' responses differ.

In another study of consensuality of good and poor readers, Otto[75] examined the responses of pupils to a word association task. The answers to two questions were sought: Will poor readers give more idiosyncratic responses than good readers when stimuli are limited to concrete nouns? Will poor readers respond less idiosyncratically than good readers when stimuli are pictures rather than words?

The results of the experiment with fourth and sixth grade good and poor readers

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Word Associations to Individual Letters," *Journal of Reading Behavior* (Fall 1969) 10-21.

[72]Carolyn Maresh, "The Utility of Phonic Generalizations: Fact or Folly?" *The Journal of the Reading Specialist,* 8, No. 3 (March 1969) 119-121 and 133.

[73]James W. Hall, "Errors in Word Recognition and Discrimination by Children of Two Age Levels," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 60, No. 2 (April 1969) 144-147.

[74]Nassir Sedarat and Wayne Otto, "Response Consensuality and Reading Ability of Intellectually Superior Pupils," *Journal of Reading Behavior* (Summer 1969) 32-39.

[75]Wayne Otto, "Consensuality of Good and Poor Readers' Word Associations with Verbal and Pictorial Stimuli," *Psychology in the Schools,* VI, No. 1 (1969) 68-72.

suggests that good readers had significantly higher scores than poor readers or greater consensuality and there was a significantly greater consensuality among responses to words than to pictures. Poor readers did not respond more consensually when pictures were presented. The study suggests that poor readers persist in their idiosyncratic responses.

A study of the sensitivity of intermediate grade pupils to contextual clues was made by Rankin and Overholser.[76] The researchers presented a *Context Test* with 130 deletions representing 13 types of contextual clues. They found a significant difference in difficulty among the clues. Four clue categories (question and answer, comparison and contrast, main idea and supporting details, and non-restrictive clauses or appositive phrases were below a 50 percent accuracy criterion. Accuracy for all clues ranged from 43 percent for grade 4 to 62 percent for grade 6. Reading ability is substantially predictive of the ability to utilize clues. Differences among grade levels in ability to respond to context clues can be almost entirely accounted for by differences in reading ability.

A study of the influence of grammatical classes on the effectiveness of five types of contextual clues was conducted with tenth graders by Dulin.[77] Five contextual devices were studied and significant differences in ease of meaning-acquisition were found in three types but not in two others. The study suggests that the teaching of contextual devices as specific types seemed to be a legitimate instructional practice. It also was apparent that the meanings of all parts of speech are about equally easily generated by context.

Reading Achievement and Some Correlates

We selected twenty studies of reading achievement and some correlates from a larger number of studies in this area. Many studies fail to reveal essential information valuable to the reader. Where specific information is lacking in the following studies we have mentioned it as a guide to the researcher.

Clay[78] investigated the self-corrective behavior of five-year-old children from five New Zealand Schools. Reading behavior was measured once each week following instruction during which investigators noted the self-corrective activities of each child. Found that children are able to respond to grammatical and semantic aspects of language in their reading.

The complexity of reading which afforded rich cue sources for the able child made the less able child confused. The results lead investigators to suggest children be taught flexible and varied word-solving techniques.

A study of the predictive validity of the Stanford Binet and the ITPA when administered to forty children ranging in age from 5-0 to 6-3 was made by Hirshoren.[79] He found that these tests were valid predictors of school achievement when child performance was measured two years later, using the *California Achievement Test* as a measure of seven achievement variables. This study like those of readiness suggests that we can predict pupil learning

[76]Earl F. Rankin and Betsy M. Overholser, "Reaction of Intermediate Grade Children to Contextual Clues," *Journal of Reading Behavior* (Summer 1969) 50-73.

[77]Kenneth La Marr Dulin, "New Research on Context Clues," *Journal of Reading*, Vol. 13, No. 1 (October 1969) 33-38.

[78]Marie M. Clay. "Reading Errors and Self-Corrective Behavior," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 39 (February, 1969) 47-56.

[79]Alfred Hirshoren. "A Comparison of the Predictive Validity of the Revised Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale and the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities," *Exceptional Children*, (March 1969) 517-521.

status if we measure certain characteristics at an early age.

Miller[80] evaluated the effect of home prereading experiences and success in reading. It was found that home prereading activities were significantly correlated with reading readiness for middle class, upper-lower class and lower-lower class. Prereading activities were significantly correlated with first grade reading achievement for middle class but not for two lower groups of children.

The researcher did not mention the number of children involved in the study nor was there evidence of any check on what mothers did at home. No mention is made of how children were selected for the study.

Taylor and Nolde[81] investigated the relationship between neurological dysorganization and reading disability in 50 children admitted into the institute of Reading Disability. The findings suggested that initial reading scores were not positively or significantly correlated with initial scores on any of the three measures of neurological organization. An interesting statement made in the article was, "Nevertheless, a general pattern of relationships was observed indicating that reading and neurological organization are statistically independent but dynamically related."

An evalution of the use of intelligence and reading readiness tests to determine reading success in grade one was reported by Hopkins and Sitkei.[82] All pupils entering grade one in two elementary schools in a lower-middle class community were studied. Both intelligence and readiness tests predicted reading success at a significant level. Since the reading readiness test predicted first grade performance as well as the intelligence test it was preferred because it takes less testing time, it is more easily interpreted, the effects of improper interpretation are much less serious to the pupil. The researchers did not mention how teachers taught reading, how children were grouped or how many children were involved in the study.

Reed[83] investigated whether differences in copying ability was related to reading ability with 248 grade one children. In the fall the *Halstead-Wepman Aphasia Screening Test* and the *Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children* were given to children and later a copying test. In June the *Gates Primary Reading Test* was administered. The researcher and a colleague studied the Greek cross drawing from the Halstead-Wepman Aphasia Screening test and selected good and poor drawings. The differences in reading achievement scores of the two groups—good and poor copiers—was analyzed. The difference in reading achievement was significant at the .01 level. It was apparent that poor copiers were less successful in reading achievement than good copiers. This does not suggest that the visuo-perspective skills involved in copying are necessarily required for reading.

An exploration of the effect on reading achievement of the encouragement of pupil judgment was made by Warner.[84] 275 pupils from 12 first grade classrooms of

[80]Wilma H. Miller. "Home Prereading Experiences and First-Grade Reading Achievement," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (April 1969) 641-645.
[81]Raymond G. Taylor, Jr. and S. Van L. Nolde. "Correlative Study Between Reading, Laterality, Mobility, and Binocularity," *Exceptional Children,* 35, (April, 1969) 627-631.
[82]Kenneth D. Hopkins and E. George Sitkei. "Predicting Grade One Reading Performance: Intelligence vs. Reading Readiness Tests," *The Journal of Experimental Education,* 37 (Spring 1969) 31-33.
[83]James C. Reed. "Children's Figure-Drawing—A Clue to Reading Progress," *The Reading Teacher,* 23 (November 1969) 132-136.
[84]Dolores Warner, "The Role of Pupil Judgment in Reading Instruction," *The Reading Teacher,* 23 (November 1969) 108-111.

schools in middle class neighborhoods participated in a reading program geared to decision-making on the part of pupils. Those pupils who were encouraged to use judgment in the lessons achieved at a more significant level than the control group which did not make judgments. The reader wondered whether the experimental teachers created a special effect due to enthusiasm and thus created the stimulus for better reading. The test used as a measure of reading progress was also questioned as an adequate enough instrument.

Smith, Brethower and Cabot[85] studied the effect of increased task behavior through reinforcement in a language arts program. Six separate experiments were conducted in which various aspects of increased task behavior in a controlled environment were measured.

The results suggest that there were higher rates of responding in feedback than in non-feedback conditions. There is a significant relationship between age and response rate with older children responding at higher rates than younger children. With performance feedback and/or monetary consequences, performance is maintained or accelerated regardless of age. With teacher praise and/or performance feedback, performance is not maintained regardless of age.

The samples used in this study were small. In 5 of the 6 experiments the samples were 8 or fewer children. The results of these experiments can only be seen as "trends" and cannot be generalized as true for all populations of children.

A study was made by Sears[86] to determine whether groups of 14 second grade boys showing average and 15 below average grade boys in levels of reading achievement differed from each other in their mastery of basic language concepts and psycholinguistic abilities. The boys were matched on racial intellectual and other criteria and during a six week period were administered a basic concept inventory and the *Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities*. No significant differences were found to exist between the groups for any of the tested skill areas. Patterns did not appear which would distinguish the average from below average readers.

Nye[87] studied the achievement gains in silent and oral reading vocabulary, comprehension and listening comprehension of 144 second grade pupils who were provided a listening-reading program as compared to those who were provided reading without the listening experience. Results indicated that listening is beneficial to reading comprehension when all levels of mental ability groups are combined for evaluation. In analyzing the study it was found that only a small number of children were compared for sub-group treatment, hence the results are questionable in terms of generalization.

Nurss[88] attempted to determine the relationship between uncorrected oral reading errors and sentence complexity with 148 second grade children in a suburban school system. Children read sentences orally. The language was analyzed and the results indicated a relationship between oral reading errors made and the syntac-

[85]Donald E. P. Smith, Dale Brethower, and Raymond Cabot, "Increasing Task Behavior in a Language Arts Program by Providing Reinforcement." *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 8 (August 1969) 45-62.

[86]Charles Richard Sears, "A Comparison of the Basic Language Concepts and Psycholinguistic Abilities of Second Grade Boys Who Demonstrate Average and Below Average Levels of Reading Achievement," *Dissertation Abstracts* (1969).

[87]Marilyn Louise Nye, "The Effects of a Listening-Reading Program Upon the Reading of Second-Grade Pupils," *Dissertation Abstracts* (1969) 1079-84.

[88]Joanne R. Nurss, "Oral Reading Errors and Reading Comprehension," *The Reading Teacher*, 22 (March 1969) 523-527.

tic complexity of the material read. This relationship holds whether or not children have been screened on vocabulary prior to testing. The researcher does not explain the whys or her sampling technique nor why her second group of pupils were not screened as the first sample was. It seemed that Nurss is jumping to a conclusion when she studies sentence complexity and concludes: "...primary grade children's oral errors may be one way of assessing their semantic and grammatical understanding of the material they are reading." (p. 527).

An effort was made by Elkind and Deblinger[89] to determine the effects of training in perceptual activity upon certain reading skills of 60 second grade children from an inner city school. The children in the experiment were placed into two groups matched for perceptual activity and for reading achievement. The control group were taught to read orally and react to certain exercises. The experimental groups were trained with nonverbal exercises. Post teaching testing revealed that significant differences were noted favoring the experimental group on the Picture Integration Test and on the Word Form and Word Recognition subtests of the reading test used. It was apparent that nonverbal training in perceptual activity had a greater effect upon certain aspects of reading achievement than did the more usual type of reading instruction. Practice in visual exploration, schematization, reorganization, transport and anticipation clearly improved the performance of the experimental group on the recognition of words and word forms. This was a well controlled study with limitations noted by the authors.

Lyle[90] reports an investigation of a tendency towards distortion in perceptual and perceptual motor tasks among 108 retarded and adequate readers in six "primary school grades" in Sydney, Australia. Pupils were tested with WISC, various achievement tests, tests of finger agnosia, lateral dominance and reversal tendencies in reading and writing. A factor analysis revealed two orthogonal factors of reading disability: one relating to perceptual and perceptual motor distortions and the other to formal verbal learning difficulties. Sequence reversals appear to be more a factor of formal verbal learning than of perceptual/perceptual-motor distortion.

Sharron[91] explored the differences between color deficient and noncolor deficient primary school children in reading achievement. Thirty-five color deficient and 35 noncolor deficient boys were selected based on color deficiencies assessed by Hardy, Rand, and Ritter Pseudo-isochromatic plates. Tests revealed no significant differences in reading between color and noncolor deficient groups. There was a significant difference however, between the mild color deficient and the noncolor deficient group.

The author believes this last result due to the fact that children in the mild color deficient group were slow in the development of color perception; thus they might also be slow in the development of reading skills.

An examination of the function of meaningfulness of material in children's verbal learning was carried on by Michelson.[92] Two learnings tasks involving meaningfulness of words were given to 64 nine-year

[89]David Elkind and Jo Ann Deblinger, "Perceptual Training and Reading Achievement in Disadvantaged Children." *Child Development,* XL (March 1969) 11-19.

[90]J. G. Lyle, "Reading Retardation and Reversal Tendency: A Factorial Study," *Child Development,* XL (September 1969) 833-843.

[91]Gilbert F. Sharron, "Color Deficiency and Reading Achievement in Primary School Boys," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (March 1969) 510-512.

[92]Norma I. Michelson, "Meaningfulness: A Critical Variable in Children's Verbal Learning." *The Reading Teacher,* 23 (October 1969) 11-14.

old pupils. The words used were derived from a sample of other nine-year olds and meaningfulness materials was learned more readily than low-meaningfulness material. This research might be useful to those interested in further study of beginning reading instruction. The description of the students was scanty with no information on intelligence, socio-economic status and other items.

Hansen[93] investigated the influence of the home literary environment on a child's independent reading attitude. Twenty-four boys and twenty-four girls in the fourth grade of high and low reading ability and their mothers were studied to determine the relation of books read and home literary environment. The home literary environment was a significant contribution to independent reading. We can conclude that it is more important what parents do in the environment than what social class is represented. The researcher did not give a full explanation of the measuring instruments used.

A study of the extent to which different types of reading sub-tests measure unique aspects of reading comprehension was reported by Schreiner, Hieronymous and Forsyth.[94] An experimental test battery including eight sub-tests of language skills were given to 513 fifth grade pupils in 9 Iowa schools. Four sub-tests of the battery (Paragraph Meaning, Cause and Effect, Main Ideas and Inferences) were highly interrelated. Other areas (Speed of Reading, Listening Comprehension, Verbal Reasoning and Speed of Noting Details) were relatively independent of each other and the other measures. The study indicated that differences among sub-test scores for the skills would be relatively reliable, and would have some diagnostic value.

Davis[95] tried to ascertain the differences in the ability of intermediate grade pupils in distinguishing between statements of fact and statements of opinion. 196 girls and 213 boys from fourth, fifth and sixth grades in 15 elementary schools were given a fact-opinion test. 36% of the pupils achieved at least 70% correct responses. The differences between pupils in grade four and those in grades five and six were significant. Pupils were more capable of identifying statements of fact than those of opinion. The correlations between reading achievement and fact-opinion scores were statistically significant. The study indicated a need for improving instruction to help children distinguish between fact and opinion. The author did not give details on when, where and by whom the study was conducted or indicated the ages and socio-economic levels of his students. No randomization procedures are described and I.Q. levels by grades were not mentioned.

Rankin and Culhane[96] replicated studies of Bormuth in an attempt to provide a frame of reference with which to interpret an acceptable level of performance on cloze tests.

Eight fifth grade classes were used with three classes of 60 pupils in a pilot study for the preparation of multiple-choice comprehension tests. The material consisted of five articles, five cloze tests and five multiple-choice comprehension tests. The test results indicated that the cloze procedure is a highly valid measure of reading com-

[93]Harlan S. Hansen, "The Impact of the Home Literary Environment on Reading Attitudes," *Elementary English* XLVI (January 1969) 17-24.

[94]Robert L. Schreiner, A. M. Hieronymous and Robert Forsyth. "Differential Measurement of Reading Abilities at the Elementary School Level," *Reading Research Quarterly* (Fall 1969) 84-99.

[95]John E. Davis, "The Ability of Intermediate Grade Pupils to Distinguish Between Fact and Opinion." *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (February 1969) 419-422.

[96]Earl F. Rankin and Joseph W. Culhane, "Comparable Cloze and Multiple-Choice Comprehension Test Scores," *Journal of Reading,* 13, No. 3 (December 1969) 193-198.

prehension and the results corroborated the validity of the comparable cloze and multiple-choice percentage scores found by Bormuth. It would seem that for comprehension criterion scores of from 75 to 100 percent, the results of this investigation are probably more valid than the results of Bormuth's 1967 study.

An investigation of the effects of teachers' beliefs on pupils' achievement was carried on by Palardy.[97] Forty-two teachers made out questionnaires on their expectations for some 216 children. There was no evidence that teachers' beliefs of poor production of boys was supported. When teachers reported that they thought boys would be as sucessful as girls, they were. When they reported that boys would be less successful the boys were. This was a well controlled study with limitations clearly identified.

Interests and Literature

Five studies related to interests are surveyed here. There are many other studies of interest available but these five related most closely to the interests of the writers.

Frandsen and Sorenson[98] tested the hypothesis that students tend to accumulate relatively more academic knowledge in subjects in which they have specialized interests. The population of 180 tenth-grade students were tested with the *Iowa Test of Educational Development.* Also determined was the student status in science interests and literary interests. The testing supported the hypothesis.

The *Sophistication of Reading Interests Scale* (SRIS) was used to estimate the relative level of sophistication of high school students' interest in fiction by Zais.[99]

A pilot study of 88 twelfth-grade students in English classes attempted to gain teacher ranking of sophistication of students in fiction and the SRIS test score ranking. The SRIS provides to only a small degree the status of students when measured against teacher opinion. The teachers' rankings conformed very closely to the academic performance of students.

Lam[100] attempted to determine the type of art preferred by 90 second-grade pupils when given a choice of the four major art styles of illustrations used in primary reading textbooks.

It was found that the children tested are highly consistent in their rating of preference for art style and rate realistic art, regardless of picture content as a first choice, muted realistic art as a second choice.

Intelligence and socio-economic level influenced second-grade rating of cartoons and semi-abstract art styles only. The author suggests further studies in the area and until other findings are available, recommends that realistic art be used only.

Harris[101] evaluated the relationship of interest-loading individual words to the acquisition of such words with 240 kindergarten pupils of low socio-economic level. Each child in the study was tested in intelligence and then individuals were taught boy-words or girl-words. Testing followed teaching and the results analyzed by orthogonal planned comparisons using: 1) a

[97]J. Michael Palardy, "What Teachers Believe—What Children Achieve," *Elementary School Journal,* 69 (April 1969) 370-374.

[98]Arden Frandsen and Maurice Sorenson. "Interests as Motives in Academic Achievement," *Journal of School Psychology,* Vol. 7, No. 1 (1968-1969).

[99]Robert S. Zais, "A Scale to Measure Sophistication of Reading Interests," *Journal of Reading,* Vol. 12, No. 4 (January 1969) 273-275 and 326.

[100]Charlotte Dawson Lam, "Pupil Preferences for Four Art Styles Used in Primary Reading Textbooks," *The Reading Teacher,* 23 (November 1969) 137-143.

[101]Larry A. Harris, "Interest and the Initial Acquisition of Words," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (January 1969) 312-314.

reading score and, 2) the number of words learned.

The acquisition scores for subjects learning boy-words and subjects learning girl-words were not significantly different. However, in all 8 comparisons the differences favored the interest-loading of the words. Retention of the words acquired was independent of sex, word type, and ability of the subjects.

The author noted that kindergarten children of low socio-economic levels do not retain for even a short period of time words which they have acquired.

The influence of reading on concepts, attitudes and behavior was studied by Fehl[102] using 420 high school students as subjects. Students were asked to tell how books, articles and poems affected their attitudes, ideas and behavior. The influences on concept, attitude and behavior were correlated with age, intelligence, vocabulary, comprehension, grade level, etc.

Student reported on 180 books influencing them, 10 of which were: *Black Like Me, The Bible, To Kill a Mockingbird, Exodus, The Good Earth, Catcher in the Rye, The Ugly American, Animal Farm, Lord of the Flies, The Grapes of Wrath.* Introspective and retrospective reports confirmed that reading influences concepts, attitudes and behavior. Of the influences reported, 45 percent were concepts, 40 percent were attitudes and 15 percent were behavioral responses.

The influences were found to be related to intelligence, reading proficiency, books and articles read, and the situation in which the reading was done. The type of material did not relate to influences.

Special Problems and Reading

Many articles and studies were reported on various special problems related to reading. Of these the following might be of interest to the reader.

Wisland and Many[103] attempted to determine the effectiveness of ITPA with 97 children of above average intelligence attending a university laboratory and nursery school. From a factor analysis of two examination results the examiners concluded that two factors of the supposed nine factors in the ITPA provided most of the meaning in diagnosis. The study does not support Kirk and McCarthy's construct that the ITPA contains nine factors.

Dunn[104] studied desegregation to learn its relationship to the teaching-learning process of 200 children from economically deprived areas of Houston, Texas. The pupils were 65% Negro, 20% white and 15% Mexican with average measured intelligence below the mean. Teachers learned all they could about the children. They visited homes, gave various tests of esteem and achievement to the pupils and found students had negative attitudes towards themselves and others. Students preferred routine and direction from teachers rather than other kinds of treatment. This short term pilot study gave teachers an insight into pupils' fears and anxieties, their need to develop a favorable self-image and their desire to communicate with adults.

The McGuffey First Eclectic Reader was compared with a modern Basal Reader by Maki and Kinnunen.[105] Words and sen-

[102]Shirley L. Fehl, "The Influence of Reading on Concepts, Attitudes, and Behavior," *The Reading Teacher,* (February 1969) 369-72 and 407-413.

[103]Milton Wisland and Wesley A. Many. "A Factorial Study of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities With Children Having Above Average Intelligence," *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* 29 (Summer 1969) 367-376.

[104]Charletta J. Dunn, "The Characteristics and Measured Language Arts Abilities of Deprived Youth in the School Desegregation Institute," *Elementary English,* XLVI (March 1969) 226-272.

[105]Valerie Spitz Maki and Sylvia Kinnunen, "A Comparison of Sentence Length and Frequency of Word Repetition in McGuffey's First Reader and

tences were counted and frequency of word repetition was made. It was found that sentence length of McGuffey Reader was longer than modern reader and word repetition was much less. The number of sentences in the McGuffey was substantially less than the modern reader. It was felt that today's reader is more effective because of word repetition and the uniform and shorter sentence lengths.

Ryckman and Wiegerink[106] evaluated several factor analysis studies of the ITPA. Their study did not support the concept of "nine single abilities" suggested by the test makers. With older children it seems that the tests get closer to single ability measurement.

Haring and Hauck[107] examined the effects of systematic instructional procedures and rewards on the reading improvement of 4 boys of average intelligence who were severely disabled in reading. Significant improvement in reading followed a 91 day period of reading instruction in which reinforcement procedures were established in which points were given for each correct answer. Pupils improved in reading level from primer to 4-1; primer to 3-1; primer to 2-2 and from 3-1 to 4-2. This was a well controlled study of behavior changes in a small number of subjects.

A study in which an attempt was made to evaluate the "Boy's Listening Test" and to determine whether disadvantagement is more typically associated with difficulty in developing reading proficiency than with limitations in verbal proficiency was made by Carver.[108] The investigator studied 615 eighth grade boys in eight metropolitan schools. Tests of listening comprehension were administered and subjects' race and family income was determined. The study indicated that there was not enough evidence to support the hypothesis that the effect of disadvantagement is more associated with the development of reading proficiency than with verbal proficiency in general.

Bormuth[109] assessed the factor validity of Cloze tests as measures of reading comprehension ability with 150, 4, 5 and 6 grade pupils. The tests were shown to be highly reliable. The factor matrix showed all tests to be highly related to each other. One factor "reading comprehension ability" accounted for most of the variance. This contradicts findings reported by Weaver and Kingston. Cloze tests measure skills closely related to or identical to those measured by conventional multiple-choice comprehension tests.

White and Aaron[110] tested differential sets from non-verbal clues to a specified reading passage presented to 95 Negro fifth grade children in order to determine varried connotative meanings and their relationship to cognitive components. Pupils read and some were shown pictures of characters in story or 5 pictures of game-like interpretation of two main characters. Then each student completed a sixty item cloze test of deletion from the passage

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a Modern First Reader," *Elementary English,* XLIV (March 1969) 313-317.

[106]David V. Ryckman and Ronald Wiegerink, "The Factors of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities: A Comparison of 18 Factor Analyses," *Exceptional Children,* 36 (October 1969) 107-113.

[107]Norris G. Haring and Mary Ann Hauck, "Improved Learning Conditions in the Establishment of Reading Skills with Disabled Readers," *Exceptional Children,* 35 (January 1969) 341-352.

[108]R. P. Carver, "Use of a Recently Developed Listening Comprehension Test to Investigate the Effect of Disadvantagement Upon Verbal Proficiency." *American Educational Research Journal,* VI (March 1969) 263-270.

[109]John R. Bormuth, "Factor Validity of Cloze Tests as Measures of Reading Comprehension Ability," *Reading Research Quarterly,* VI (March 1969) 263-270.

[110]William F. White and Robert Aaron, "Non-Verbal Cues as Determinants of Reading Comprehension," *Journal of Reading Behavior,* (Fall 1969) 53-65.

read. When the Negro boys saw a picture of Jerry (Negro) and read the passage, they were inclined to rate him primarily on the activity dimension and then on the connotative meaning of evaluation, potency and dynamism. They rated a picture of Hilary (white) differently. It can be inferred that defining the dynamic character of the white was somewhat conditioned by the negative evaluation of the total Negro class. The discussion of the results was so packed with technical jargon and references that it was difficult to follow. The impact of the findings could well be lost for many readers because of the poor discussion of the findings.

The residual effects of the CRAFT project on participants and curriculum after close of experiment was reported by Morrison, Harris and Auerbach.[111] Of the 57 teachers interviewed, 43 were not using the method in the same way they had in the CRAFT projects. In almost all instances teachers were using basal readers and placed more effort on teaching phonics. Teachers had abandoned strict adherence to one method. Most schools had reverted to grouping of children according to ability rather than teaching heterogeneous classes as in CRAFT. The results seemed at first to indicate that teachers are most likely to revert to their old methods. However, a closer look revealed that teachers had modified their approaches somewhat.

The reviewers found many other articles of interest to reading and language arts specialists and cite only bibliographical references to those which were of most interest:

Richard E. Wylie, "Diversified Concepts of the Role of the Reading Consultant," *The Reading Teacher,* 22 (March 1969) 519-522.

Sonya Petersen and Peter A. Magaro. "Reading and Field Dependence: A Pilot Study," *Journal of Reading,* Vol. 12, No. 4 (January 1969) 287-294.

Wendell W. Weaver, A. C. Bickley and Fraughton G. Ford "A Croff-Validation Study of the Relationship of Reading Test Items to Their Relevant Paragraphs," *Perceptual and Motor Skills,* (August 1969) 11-14.

Bertha K. Stavrianos and Sylvia C. Landsman, "Personality Patterns of Deficient Readers with Perceptual-Motor Problems," *Psychology in the Schools,* Vol. VI, No. 2 (1969) 109-123.

Rozanne A. McCall and Robert B. McCall, "Comparative Validity of Five Reading Diagnostic Tests," *The Journal of Educational Research,* Vol. 62, No. 7 (March 1969) 329-333.

Jean Kunz and Joan E. Moyer, "A Comparison of Economically Disadvantaged and Economically Advantaged Kindergarten Children," *The Journal of Educational Research,* Vol. 62, No. 9, (May-June) 392-395.

Edward C. Caldwell and Vernon C. Hall, "The Influence of Concept Training on Letter Discrimination," *Child Development,* XL (March 1969) 63-71.

Carl B. Smith and Mary C. Austin, "Conducting a National Study of Title I Reading Programs." *Reading Research Quarterly,* IV (Spring 1969) 323-341.

Roger C. Farr, Lary A. Harris, James L. Laffey, and Carl Bernard Smith, "An Examination of Reading Problems in Indiana Schools: Reading Problems in the Elementary Schools," *Bulletin of the School of Education,* Indiana University, 45 (March 1969) 1-47.

Grace H. Yeni-Komshian and Wallace E. Lambert, "Concurrent and Consecutive Modes of Learning Two Vocabularies," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* Vol. 60, No. 3 (June 1969).

S. Jay Samuels, "Effect of Word Associations on the Recognition of Flashed Words," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* Vol. 60, No. 2 (April 1969) 97-102.

[111]Coleman Morrison, Albert J. Harris, and Irma T. Auerbach, "Staff After-Effects of Participation in a Reading Research Project: A Follow-up of the CRAFT Project." *Reading Research Quarterly,* IV (Spring 1969) 367-395.

Summary of Investigations Relating to the English Language Arts in Secondary Education: 1969

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THE research presented in this article was located through the bibliography of research (Blount 1969 a, b) printed in the Spring and Fall numbers of Volume 3 of *Research in the Teaching of English* (*RTE*). The *RTE* bibliography is compiled from a basic master list of approximately one hundred journals high in their yield of research and from various book and nonprocessed sources.

Some selectivity was exercised in choosing articles for inclusion in this summary. Priority was assigned to empirical investigations with a demonstrated focus upon the teaching of English and to investigations of more than usual significance.

As in past years, this summary is sponsored by the NCTE Committee on Research.[1]

[1]The author wishes to express his appreciation to both the current chairman of the Committee on Research, James R. Squire, and to the chairman immediately preceeding Mr. Squire, Richard Braddock, for their careful reading of manuscript and for invaluable advice.

Bibliographies and Summaries of Research

Blount (1969 c) summarized selected investigations relating to the English language arts in secondary education and prepared bibliographies of research in the teaching of English (1969 a, b). Sheldon and Lashinger (1969) summarized research studies relating to language arts in elementary education.

Summaries of investigations relating to reading were made by Harris *et al.* (1969) and by Robinson, Weintraub, and Smith (1969). And the *English Journal* published a series of articles on what research has revealed on the teaching of reading. These articles were on teaching materials (Devine 1969), evaluation (Diederich 1969), successful reading programs (Early 1969), the English teacher and reading (Gunn 1969), reading and the high school student (Karlin 1969), practices in teaching reading (McCullough 1969), reading in the content fields (Moore 1969), and attitudes toward reading (Squire 1969 b).

Reporting for NCTE/ERIC to *English Journal* readers, Denby authored articles containing reports of experimental studies on creative writing (1969 a), film study (1969 b), independent study programs (1969 c), oral/dramatics approaches to English (1969 d), humanities instruction (1969 e), and black literature (1969 f). Also writing for NCTE /ERIC, Clark (1969) prepared a report on innovation in teaching English.

The year brought publication of the fourth edition of the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research,* containing concise summaries of research and references for further study on a number of topics of interest to English teachers. Included were articles on: English composition (Braddock 1969), listening (Duker 1969), reading (Harris 1969), spelling (Horn 1969), language development (MacGinitie 1969), handwriting (Otto 1969), and English literature (Squire 1969 a).

Hook, Jacobs, and Crisp (1969) issued a final report on the Illinois State-Wide Curriculum Study Center in the Preparation of Secondary School English Teachers (ISCPET). Included in the report were summaries of thirty-three research studies conducted under the aegis of ISCPET. The research was in these areas: preparation for teaching the English language, written composition, literature and reading, and oral English; preparation of teachers for slow learners; methods courses and supervision; in-service and graduate education of teachers; measurement and evaluation; and status studies of English teacher preparation in Illinois. Some of these studies appear later in this article under the heading "Preparation of Secondary School English Teachers."

In January 1969, the first issue of *Current Index to Journals in Education* (*CIJE*) was published. Covering approximately 352 publications, *CIJE* makes current educational information available to the practicing educator and educational researcher. English teachers will find valuable bibliographic entries on current research under such descriptor groups as "language and speech," "humanities," "reading," "research," and so on; and under subject headings such as "English instruction," "English literature," "grammar," "spelling," etc.

Providing critiques of research, Sherwin (1969) reported on four areas of concern to English teachers. He made a critique of historical and experimental evidence regarding the claim that the study of Latin helps students master English (pp. 1-28). He reported on and interpreted research studies dealing with a number of problems in teaching spelling, problems ranging from the role of rules, to test-study versus study-test method, to the relationship of motivation and spelling ability (pp. 29-108). He reported on studies dealing with increasing the student's skill in writing through writing practice, study of traditional grammar, and study of linguistics (pp. 109-168). And finally, he reported on some thirty-five studies, position papers, and sections of books on the worth of sentence diagramming in helping students increase ability to use language (pp. 169-186).

General English Pedagogy

Greene (1968) conducted a study to make a descriptive appraisal of curriculums aimed at modifying the teaching of English in urban settings. Data were statistics from national and local surveys, interviews, observations, questionnaires, and readings. Among the findings were that mobile populations had increased transiency and crowding in the urban school, had extended ability range in certain classes, had concentrated numbers of adolescents needing curriculums differing from those formerly successful with students from the middle class. There was evidence that both low and high achievers in the urban schools benefitted from classes (1) designed to meet

their needs, (2) taught by specially trained teachers, (3) characterized by many teaching methods, activities, and materials. It appeared that the importance of oral language activities had not been realized in the schools examined. Questionnaire returns indicated that the single most important factor in effecting curriculum change in the teaching of English in schools in urban settings is the involvement of the classroom teacher.

Waters (1968) reported an investigation of the effects of team teaching in English. Comparisons were of regular senior English students in the class of 1965 (Central High School, Phoenix, Arizona) taught by three senior teachers in a traditional self-contained classroom and of regular seniors, class of 1966 (Central High), taught by the same three teachers in a team-teaching design. Curriculum consisted of work in literary comprehension and appreciation. Data were from the *Cooperative Literary Comprehension and Appreciation Test.* Analysis of data led Waters to conclude that team teaching and traditional self-contained classroom teaching produced the same achievement in literary comprehension and appreciation for seniors in regular English classes at Central High.

Composition

Barbig (1968) reported on growth in writing ability as measured by compositions written at five grade levels in thirty-one junior and senior high schools in a county in North Carolina. Controls were established for assignment, rater, and writer variables. The raters divided randomly mixed papers into three stacks: high (top quarter in general merit), middle (middle half in general merit), and low (lowest quarter). As measured in group averages expressed in percentages, the ratings suggested a discernible growth in written composition. Barbig also administered a questionnaire to determine the relationship of selected variables to writing category for ninth- and twelfth-grade students. The good writer tended to be the academic girl; the poor writer, the nonacademic boy. Good writers did more voluntary reading and had a better self-concept and attitude toward writing. Girls in all writing categories did more reading and more voluntary writing than did boys. More girls than boys chose English as their favorite course.

Lacampagne (1968) examined approaches and attitudes toward composition of twelfth-grade students with superior writing performance and students of average writing performance. The superior students were NCTE Achievement Award winners or runners-up from all states. The average students, again representing all states, were selected by teachers or administrators. The instrument was a forty-item questionnaire. It was found that superior writers in the study had developed a more conscious and structured approach to writing than had average writers. Superior writers had more positive attitudes toward composition, and had differing profiles from average writers in writing interests and in amounts of time devoted to writing. The investigator noted some correlation between superior performance in writing and extensive reading experiences.

Language

Berger (1968) hypothesized (1) that seventh-grade students in six schools in disadvantaged areas in New York City would produce written compositions containing less nonstandard dialect usage when given teacher selected and structured assignments and (2) that students would produce compositions containing more nonstandard dialect usage when assignments were self selected and nonstructured. Students (N=527) were given four treatments: (1) student selected and structured writing, (2) student selected and nonstructured writing, (3)

teacher selected and structured writing, and (4) teacher selected and nonstructured writing. Results of analysis of variance and *t* tests revealed no significance among the means of treatment groups. The conditions tested did not result in the students' switching from nonstandard to standard dialect in written composition.

Briggs (1968) reported on deviations from standard English in written composition for thirty black students from a high school in Birmingham, Alabama. She used ten students (five male, five female) in Grades 9, 10, and 11, creating a corpus of thirty papers. By and large, categories for classifying deviations from standard English followed those categories set forth in the earlier research of Loban (1966): verb problems, pronoun problems, syntactic confusion, and other problems. (Because she worked with written English only, Briggs added a category, spelling and vocabulary.) Excluding spelling and vocabulary, the investigator found total deviations per 1,000 words almost constant for each grade: 79.46 in the ninth grade, 73.44 in tenth grade, and 76.51 in eleventh grade. In the spelling and vocabulary category, students showed a regular decrease in deviations per 1,000 words from Grades 9 to 11. At each grade level, Briggs found consistently high numbers of deviations in the areas of noun problems, omission problems, nonstandard verb forms, and tense problems.

Goddin (1968) compared the effects on student achievement of a transformational/generative approach and a traditional approach to teaching English grammar at Grades 3 and 7. Scores for sections of a standardized achievement test were given before and after treatment. Analysis of the data for students in Grade 7 suggested that a transformational grammar approach was as good as or better than a traditional approach—in many cases, yielding superior scores on test subsections on paragraph meaning and language achievement.

Johnson (1969) made a comparison of traditional techniques and second language techniques (audio-lingual approach, extensive oral practice, pattern practice, taped lessons, and so on) in teaching certain standard grammatical forms to tenth-grade black students speaking a nonstandard dialect. There were three treatment groups, matched on the basis of mental ability and reading achievement scores. Experimental Group I (N=24) received the treatment involving second language techniques throughout one semester, together with the regular English curriculum. Experimental Group II (N=17) received the experimental program in an intensive, rather than extended, form. A control group (N=26) studied the regular curriculum. Data were from recorded speech samples collected at the beginning and end of the semester. The two experimental groups of black students learned more of standard English than did the control groups: second language teaching techniques were significantly more effective. The program given Experimental Group II (a "total immersion," intensive program) was more effective than the similar program given Group I (taught over an extended period of time).

Klemm (1969) compared two approaches to teaching spelling in Grade 7 in a bicultural school system (some students spoke American English; some, Spanish). The two methods of teaching spelling in this bicultural school were: (1) a teacher-directed group approach and (2) a student-centered self-directed individualized approach. A gain attributable to teacher-directed instruction was found for students of low mental ability; students of average and high ability did not appear to be significantly affected by the approach to spelling used in the classroom. The following variables were *not* statistically significant: language spoken in the home, sex, chronological age, or homogeneous grouping (low, average, high) in the classroom. Klemm suggested

that the two factors in his data which appeared to result in significant differences in spelling achievement were: (1) correct pronunciation of spelling/vocabulary words and (2) knowledge of the meanings of words.

Mellon (1969) investigated the hypothesis that practice in transformational sentence-combining (an a-rhetorical, intensive, and specially structured experiencing of mature sentences) would enhance students' normal growth of syntactic fluency. This hypothesis was tested at the seventh-grade level in an experiment of one year's duration. Students were assigned to three groups: (1) an experimental group of seventh-graders (N=100) receiving sentence-combining problems, (2) a control group (N=100) receiving traditional parsing exercises, and (3) a placebo group (N=47) receiving extra instruction in literature and composition rather than grammar. Four schools participated. All students wrote in-class compositions during the normal course of the year. Basic data for the dependent variable, syntactic fluency, were from a ninety T-unit paper written by each student early in the school year and another ninety T-unit sample written at the end of the school year. Mellon looked at twelve factors of syntactic fluency ranging from mean T-unit length to embedded kernel sentences per one-hundred T-units to mean maximum depth level. The experimental group (studying sentence-combining problems) experienced significant pre-post growth on all twelve factors. The control group showed no significant growth. While the control group and the experimental group were similar in prewriting, analysis of covariance showed that the experimental group surpassed the control group on every measure ($p<.01$) in postwriting. The experimental group was significantly above the placebo group on eight of twelve measures; there were few or no significant differences between control and placebo groups. There was some evidence that better students gained more from the experimental treatment than did poorer students. Sex and school differences were not significant. The investigator cautioned his readers not to conclude from his research that grammar study "improves" sentence structure, saying that it was the sentence-combining practice associated with grammar study, not the grammar study itself, which influenced the growth rate of syntactic fluency of students used in this research.

Umstattd (1968) compared two methods of teaching spelling to low-achieving eighth-grade students. The two methods were: (1) a practice method, characterized by routine, repetitive steps to study words as individual problems and (2) a strategy method, characterized by making comparisons, discovering generalizations, and gaining understandings about the intrinsic relations within the structure and organization of words. There were 109 students, randomly assigned to control and experimental groups. Treatment was for five hours. Data (tests of spelling achievement and scores from daily spelling tests) for comparing the two treatments were collected before and after treatment. The two methods produced no significant differences in daily spelling achievement. However, the investigator found that the strategy method produced significantly greater transfer of learning for low-achievers than did the practice method.

Whalen (1969) examined the relationship between (1) student knowledge of grammar and ability in composition and (2) ability in composition and total language ability (grammar, capitalization, punctuation, spelling, and usage). A sample of seventh-grade students of average ability was given two tests: *California Language Test, Junior High Level*, and a composition based on a reading of *Tom Sawyer*. The composition was evaluated on technical, rather than rhetorical, criteria. Four error types accounted for over two-thirds of the students' errors: in

rank order from high to low, these were spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and run-on sentence. Defining grammar as syntax, the investigator reported that grammar errors constituted 5.7 per cent of total errors. He reported a canonical correlation of .91 between ability to write technically competent compositions and total language knowledge. On the basis of his findings of a strong relationship between total language ability (grammar, spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and usage) and performance in written composition, Whalen recommended that English teachers set aside some of their doubts as to the value of conventional language instruction.

Literature

Andresen (1969) reported an experiment testing a structured method of evaluating literature. Average and above-average students (N=266) from Grades 9 and 11 at Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, were divided into experimental and control groups. The experimental groups were taught to evaluate the profundity of themes in literature using a literary profundity scale developed by the investigator. This scale had five levels of literary profundity: physical plane, mental plane, moral plane, psychological plane, and philosophical plane. Control groups were taught through informal discussion based on questions in anthologies. The period of treatment was one year. Two tests, *Interpretation of Literature Test* and *Literary Profundity Test*, were administered both before and after the period of instruction. Experimental groups made greater gains on tests than the control groups; however, only the differences between experimental and control females were statistically significant ($p < .007$). Females in the experimental group learning a structured method of evaluating the profundity of literature had higher mean scores than females in the control group. Male students tended to benefit as much from other methods as from the structured method. Although not overwhelmingly conclusive, evidence tended to support the usefulness of a structured instructional method based on Andresen's profundity scale.

Doran (1968) conducted a study to determine the use of contemporary plays and novels in the senior high school. A questionnaire was mailed to sixty-three randomly selected New Jersey English teachers. Replies were obtained from fifty-eight (95 per cent) of these teachers. Fifty-five of the fifty-eight respondents indicated that they were teaching the contemporary works which they thought should be taught. Forty-seven respondents indicated that they did not rely on anthologies for contemporary selections; fifty-three reported using paperbacks. Most teachers reported using mass media in teaching contemporary literature. Doran found no specific grade level nor any one type of class or student singled out for the study of contemporary plays and novels. Forty-nine teachers in the study reported using contemporary works with individual students and with small groups, rather than with entire classes. Those few teachers not teaching contemporary works cited problems of censorship and budget as explanations.

Glenn (1968) tested materials relating the adolescent's subcultural world to the content of high school literature studies. Treatment consisted of nine lessons made up of (1) lyrics to popular teenage music, (2) related literary selections, and (3) materials calling attention to thematic relationships between the song lyrics and the related literature. One group of tenth-grade students studied one treatment lesson per week for nine weeks; a control group heard "decoy" recordings, but no attempt was made to relate the recordings to literature. Glenn's hypothesis was that students exposed to the treatment of innovative materials would be more receptive to literature and more

inclined to write about literature than students not receiving the innovative materials. Analysis of data failed to support this hypothesis. However, the author reported that a small number of individual students wrote compositions indicating that they did indeed benefit from a program of materials using and comparing literature and teenage lyrics.

Grindstaff (1968) reported responses of tenth-grade students to *Fahrenheit 451*, *A Separate Peace*, *Swiftwater*, and *Up the Down Staircase*. Two groups received instruction in the novels by two methods: a structural analysis method and an experiential reflective analysis method. A third group, used as a control, did not receive instruction in the novel. Data were from free response compositions, and were analyzed using categories ranging from self-involvement to prescriptive judgment to literary judgment. Grindstaff found that the kind of novel studied and the approach used in teaching that novel accounted for some of the varying responses of adolescents to the novel. Both treatment groups demonstrated more divergent responses, more sophisticated responses, and fewer difficulties in reading than did the control group. The experiential reflective analysis approach seemed superior to the structural analysis approach as a method of teaching the novel to teenagers.

Hahn (1968) collected information on critical and pedagogical emphases in teaching literature in selected secondary schools. Sixty-three teachers who had participated in NDEA Institutes in English in summer of 1965 provided accounts of what they deemed effective high school literature lessons. A major concern reported in approximately 74 per cent of the reports of teaching practice involved developing and administering independent reading programs. Other reports dealt with relating written composition and literature, teaching selected classics, teaching thematic units, and allowing students to choose units of work. Reports of major instructional emphases revealed: 50 per cent of the teachers reported their approach to literature to be the concept of literature as experience; 30 per cent, the concept of literature as exemplification of form; 10 per cent, the concept of literature as a vehicle of recurrent theme; and 9 per cent, a concept of literature as a collection of standard works. The investigator recommended that the profession draw more on the teaching-learning approaches to literature reported by superior teachers.

Hipple (1968) analyzed values in four American novels and suggested uses of the discovered values in high school English classes. The four novels analyzed were *The Red Badge of Courage*, *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, *The Catcher in the Rye*, and *To Kill a Mockingbird*. Each novel was examined in terms of seven value categories: aesthetic values; economic values; health, bodily, and recreational values; intellectual values; moral values; religious values; and social values. Hipple found extensive treatment of health and recreational values, moral values, and social values in all four novels. Not one of the novels offered significant insights into aesthetic or religious values. Intellectual values were important only in *The Catcher in the Rye* and *To Kill a Mockingbird*. Economic values were present to any great degree only in *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* and *The Catcher in the Rye*. Hipple included specific examples for the classroom teacher of use of the discovered values in a value-centered approach to literature.

Weiss (1968) compared the effects of two methods of teaching poetry, inductive and programmed, on the responses of 179 urban eleventh-grade students. Free response tests on poems were analyzed using *Elements of Writing about a Literary Work* (Purves 1968). It could not be shown that programmed instruction altered the fundamental approach or quantity of responses to poetry. There was some evidence that induc-

tive method produced signficant quantitative gains as measured by a test of transfer. Weiss suggested that curriculum makers and classroom teachers give programmed textbooks in literature more thorough evaluation before using them in English classes. He also urged that inductive method be considered as promising pedagogy in the teaching of poetry.

Reading

Evans (1968) conducted a study having two main objectives: (1) to explore relationships between affective responses and intellectual-critical responses to literature and (2) to explore relationships between selected aspects of reading interests and affective responses. Data (from the *Carroll Prose Appreciation Test*, a survey of reading interests, and an instrument developed by Evans to judge affective responses) were collected for 264 eleventh-grade students. The investigator found no significant relationships between affective responses and intellectual-critical responses, or between intellectual-critical responses and two interest factors (general interest in reading books and breadth of reading interests). He conjectured that intellectual-critical judgment responses might be, in part, an independent skill or that they might be a function of maturity. Statistically significant relationships were found between affective responses and interest scores: greater emotional involvement with literature tended to be accompanied by greater interest in reading books and by a wide range of reading interests. Females consistently outnumbered males in the high group for each factor considered in the research, a finding in general accord with many other reading studies. Cautioning that the reader assume no cause-effect relationships, Evans suggested that teaching methods centering on aspects of experience to which adolescents might respond, and which might increase interest in reading, might be rewarding in the English classroom.

McKay (1968) analyzed research and professional literature on the reading interests of secondary school students, 1889-1965. He found one deterrent to love for reading to be the imposition by adults of their likes and dislikes in reading: in the case of English teachers—required reading lists, adult standards of aesthetics, neglect of the interests of adolescents, misuse of the literature anthology, and so on. McKay's documentary technique revealed the importance of age, mental ability, and sex as determinants of reading interests. It revealed a steady decline from grade to grade in the amount of book reading done by secondary school students. McKay urged a change in the rationale of literature courses in the direction of greater attention by the teacher to the student's age, sex, mental ability, interest, and so on.

Shirley (1969) reported case studies of the influence of reading on adolescents. Among her data were protocols for five students (all female) exhibiting high influence by reading and five students (three female, two male) exhibiting low influence by reading. The data suggested that maximal and minimal influence from reading were not related to mental ability or reading proficiency. Shirley noted that the students' self-evaluations were more revealing than the teachers' evaluations and observations of the students' reading: introspective reports by the students came closer to revealing reader emotions, ideas, action, and feeling than checklists, rating scales, or observations.

Preparation of Secondary School English Teachers (Preservice, Graduate, Inservice)

Frogner (1969) reported development and administration of a two-part *Language Inquiry*. Part I consisted of one hundred items validated against the judgments of ten linguists, each item to be marked by the respondent on a scale from agree to disagree. Part II called for

the respondent to select three statements from Part I which he might like to hear discussed, and to provide possible reasons for the selection. The instrument was administered in Illinois colleges and universities, both public and private, to three groups: (1) college students (N=597), (2) cooperating teachers (N=202), and (3) recent graduates (N=83). Responses to the one hundred items making up Part I of *Language Inquiry* contained the following statistically significant differences ($p<.01$): differences totaling 27 per cent between responses of linguists and responses of college students, differences of 17 per cent between linguists and recent graduates, and differences of 12 per cent between linguists and cooperating teachers. Analysis of items eliciting differing responses between linguists and each of the three groups revealed what the investigator termed an unrealistic approach by members of the three groups to many details of language: the attitude of respondents in the three groups often seemed to be that of following a rigid classification or a traditional rule without attention to the particular language situation involved. Observation of data for Part II suggested to Frogner a lack of awareness by the respondents as to the possibility of an answer other than their own. From analysis of her data, the author made two recommendations: (1) that the teaching of language in schools be accurate and close to the facts of the English language, rather than prescriptive and authoritarian, and (2) that linguists, high school English teachers, and college teachers concerned with English education study the preparation needed to teach English language.

Hess (1968) gathered information on language attitudes and beliefs of selected elementary and high school English teachers in Minnesota. She used a one-hundred-item questionnaire based on nine basic concepts: that language is (1) highly personal and social, (2) crucial to humanity, (3) dynamic, (4) oral, (5) learned, (6) used for many purposes, (7) symbolic, (8) conventional, and (9) systematic. A stratified random sample of secondary English teachers (N=647) in eighty-nine secondary schools showed minimum evidence of informed attitudes and beliefs toward English language. The mean for these secondary school teachers was 58.77; the median, 57.31. Agreement of these high school teachers with linguists was 74.4 per cent on 50 per cent or more of the one hundred items. Hess concluded that the secondary teachers were not very far above a minimum requirement for informed attitudes and beliefs on language and that English teachers yet have much to learn of the English language and of its study.

Two purposes of a study by Jacobs and Crisp (1969) were: (1) to obtain information on the level of competency of Illinois secondary school English teachers in educational measurement and evaluation and (2) to determine experienced teachers' judgments of competency in measurement desirable for beginning English teachers. To achieve these objectives the investigators constructed *Questionnaire on Educational Measurement in English* and made use of the already existent *Checklist of Measurement Competencies* (Mayo, 1967). Returns were obtained from 263 English teachers. Approximately 54 per cent of the respondents reported having completed course work in measurement, evaluation, and testing. Some 36 per cent felt their knowledge in the area inadequate. Approximately 70 per cent of the teachers thought preparation in testing and measurement should be required of prospective teachers. Respondents reported that the theme was the most frequently used means of measurement. A statistically significant correlation for number of courses in measurement and evaluation with ratings of statements in the *Checklist* was obtained. All of the findings of the research study appeared to validate a

requirement of a measurement and evaluation competency for English teachers.

As a tool in assessing the preparedness of prospective English teachers or as inservice material, Jacobs and Evans (1969) developed, administered, evaluated, and revised four English tests: Test A, *Knowledge of Language*; Test B, *Knowledge and Attitude in Written Composition*; Test C, *Knowledge and Skill in Literature;* and Test D, *Knowledge and Skill in the Teaching of English.* Fairly high estimates of reliability were obtained for Tests A, C, and D; the researchers concluded that these tests showed up fairly well in field testing. Test B also performed well and yielded interesting information. It was based on descriptions of two fundamentally different philosophies for teaching composition: the philosophy of Teacher X, who tends to emphasize rhetoric and the structure of discourse; and the philosophy of Teacher Y, who tends to emphasize the process of composing. Data on Test B suggested that teachers tending toward the "Y" attitude scored higher on Tests A, C, and D than did teachers tending toward the "X" attitude. The investigators recommended further development and national standardization of the tests.

Lindsey (1969) measured effectiveness of use of selected professional readings for inservice education for selected teachers teaching English in secondary school with only a minor in English. The materials studied by these teachers included readings on language, composition, the teaching of reading, inductive teaching, general problems in English, and adolescent literature. Examination of pre- and post-survey data revealed a significant difference ($p<.0006$) for use of professional readings as an effective inservice device.

Madsen (1968) reported constructing a valid and reliable *Instrument To Survey Knowledge of Literary Criticism.* Using this test, Madsen found a significant difference ($p<.01$) between college seniors taking a course in literary criticism and college seniors learning criticism through undergraduate literature courses and independent reading in critical theory. Students having had a course in literary criticism performed better on the instrument. The course in literary criticism seemed, however, more useful in building understanding of theoretical positions toward literature than in producing a critical lexicon. Madsen concluded that a well-rounded program in literature for prospective teachers or an inservice program for experienced teachers might well include course work in criticism.

McQuire (1969) conducted a national survey of the teaching of reading by English teachers in secondary schools. He reported data from completed questionnaires of 912 public school English teachers (secondary school members of NCTE). The data confirmed findings of earlier nationwide studies: although poorly prepared to do so, English teachers are expected to teach reading. Among his recommendations, McQuire urged that each student preparing to teach high school English take a course in the teaching of reading and that inservice programs in the teaching of reading be initiated (or improved) in all secondary schools.

Neville and Papillon (1969) measured the effect of a special composition course upon the competence of beginning English composition teachers. Seventy-two college students were used: thirty-six in an experimental group (prepared by a special composition course) and thirty-six in a control group. Experimental *Ss* were from DePaul University; control, from Loyola University. Criterion data consisted of scores on the *Examination in English Composition for Secondary School Teachers* developed by the English Department and School of Education at DePaul. Of a total possible score of thirty points, both experimental and control groups had a mean of 13.47 points. Covariant data consisting of grade

point average showed the control group slightly superior to the experimental group in initial aptitude for English study. The investigators cited one modest positive result: while the experimental group was initially slightly unequal to the control group in ability to study English, the special composition course given the experimental *Ss* resulted in a tie in mean score on a post-treatment examination in English composition. The investigators' inference was that the composition course given the experimental *Ss* accounted for this "catching up."

Pearson and Reese (1969) conducted a two-year national study of the linguistic and language preparation of secondary school English teachers. Data and opinions were from two questionnaires and from interviews with linguists, language specialists, teachers, students, and curriculum specialists. There was high agreement among the respondents that present preparation for secondary school English teachers in the area of language is grossly inadequate. However, respondents were not in complete agreement on the best way to provide adequate preparation. Some respondents suggested study of traditional school grammar; some, structural; some, transformational; some, tagmemic; and so on. The majority of respondents did endorse some ten hours of course work in language, possibly courses in the study of modern English grammars, historical study, and linguistic theory.

Concluding Remarks

This is the tenth annual review of research published in the *English Journal*. In 1969, as in 1959, the profession could have benefitted from more empirical research to test its orientations and theoretical concepts. Much of the research reported during the decade consisted of descriptive and status studies (surveys on censorship, use of textbooks, teacher preparation, and so on). Such studies are always invaluable. However, the teaching of literature, composition, language, popular culture, and so on needs more experimentation—empirical research in which variables are manipulated and in which the effect of these variables is observed and reported. A review of the decade does reveal a few outstanding, significant studies (for example, the work by Loban [1966], Mellon [1969], and Purves [1968] cited in this year's summary); but the number of such studies is indeed few. A review of the decade of research might reveal that by and large research findings have not been consistent (say for the uses of programmed learning or team teaching), that the research has not been systematic (experts still urge us to replicate Coryell's work [1927] on the extensive and intensive study of literature), that some of the research has had deficiencies in conception or execution (for example, many of the studies cited by Braddock [1963] as he studied the teaching of composition or by Petty [1968] as he studied the teaching of vocabulary). The research of the decade has come largely from doctoral students, college professors, and agencies funded by federal or private funds; little research has come from the classroom teacher. Hopefully, another decade of reviews of research will reveal increasing numbers of studies which are systematic; whose findings are consistent with other research; which are significant and outstanding in impact on the profession; which are authored by Ph.D. candidates, professors, agencies, and classroom English teachers. One thing which is clearly needed for a decade to come is a larger number of classroom teachers committed to the idea that empirical research is one very valuable means of improving educational practice, teachers who will be leaders in planning, conducting, and reporting experimentation in the teaching of English.

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